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Dear Inkanyiso Readers,

It is with pleasure that we present to you our second issue of "*Inkanyiso: The Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*" (Vol.2,1). *Inkanyiso* is a peer-refereed scholarly journal produced by the Faculty of Arts of the University of Zululand that publishes full text open access articles from the Humanities and Social Sciences (see <http://www.inkanyiso.uzulu.ac.za>). The journal is indexed by SABINET and included in SABINET E-publications database and also currently being processed for indexing by AJOL and Scopus.

This issue consists of eight articles focusing on literature, philosophy, indigenous knowledge, information studies, research, social work, recreation and tourism. Two interesting contributions for this issue focus on literature. The first article, by Marie Spruyt, a research fellow at the University of Zululand, is entitled "Umberto Eco's *The Mysterious Flame of Queen Loana*: A conduit for culture, consciousness and cognition". She explores Eco's novel at three levels and describes the popular culture of the Italian fascist period by deconstructing signs, symbols and signals from a particular point in time in the lives of both the author and his protagonist. In the second article, "The usage of African languages in three selected contemporary German novels set in Africa", Doret Jordaan focuses on the use of indigenous African languages, as well as the utilisation of language as a motif in selected contemporary German novels set in Africa, to show how the use of African languages in these novels can create, perpetuate and resolve suspense in a plot. Outside the scope of literature, another interesting article written by Cyril-Mary Olatunji questions whether "Primitivism is Indigenous to Africa" and discusses the role of African indigenous knowledge systems and African science in extolling primitivism. The fourth and fifth papers focus on Information Science/Studies. The fourth article, by George Chipeta, entitled "Information Literacy (IL) Teaching and Learning: A Literature Review", reviews existing literature on the teaching and learning of Information Literacy (IL) in institutions of higher learning and compares literature on various IL undertakings and challenges. George believes that his paper unearths the dearth of studies on information literacy in Africa, and argues that information literacy, with the exception of South Africa, is mostly euro-centric with very little of it happening in African countries. The fifth article, co-authored by Dennis Ocholla and Janneke Mostert, focuses on research output, i.e. "The Research Trends of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research at the University of Zululand, 1994 – 2008". They explore and examine the status and challenges of research management at the University of Zululand to evaluate research output in the Faculty of Arts by using informetrics. The study recognises a growing Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences research engagement and publication, including rapid growth in postgraduate research output in the form of masters and doctoral dissertations, and raises other issues that are important for AH&SS research and development.

Recreation and tourism is an important sector in South Africa. Thus the sixth paper, by Thandi Nzama, entitled "Challenges of sustainable rural tourism development in KwaZulu-Natal", focuses on sustainable rural tourism development because, she notes, it does not threaten the integrity of the ecological and social systems upon which communities and societies depend, and contextualises her argument in the development of sustainable rural tourism in the rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal. Thandi's findings suggest that there is considerable potential for natural, cultural and heritage tourism because of the existence of a variety of resources, but recognises that more can be achieved if local people are made aware of these. In the seventh article, "Health caregivers' approach towards the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons in uMhlathuze, South Africa" by Esien Cobham and Ngenisiwe Ntombela, the authors discuss the efficacy of the approaches used in rehabilitating HIV and AIDS persons and recommend better resourcing and capacity building for the rehabilitation process. Finally, in the last article in this issue, "Bridging the transactional gap in Open Distance Learning (ODL): The case of the University of South Africa (Unisa)", Blessing Mbatha and Lynette Naidoo (University of South Africa), attempt to map and audit the availability of e-learning resources and their use by Communication Science students at the University of South Africa (UNISA), and conclude that UNISA currently provides a variety of e-learning resources for its students.

I hope that you find this issue interesting and the reading rewarding.

Enjoy

Dennis Ocholla, Editor-in-Chief, *Inkanyiso*

Inkanyiso

Guidelines for submission

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The copyright of any article accepted for publication in Inkanyiso belongs to Inkanyiso. The author of such an article who wishes to publish it in another journal may be granted permission to do so after the lapse of six months, on condition that she or he acknowledges its prior publication in Inkanyiso in a footnote.

Editorial objectives of *Inkanyiso*

The Journal's objectives are to publish papers of broad interest in the humanities and the social sciences.

Reviewing process

- (a) Every submitted paper that the editors deem acceptable as to topic, style, length and general quality will be sent to at least two peer referees for blind review.
- (b) The referees will be scholars of standing, members of the Editorial Advisory Board, the Journal Management Team and others identified by their specific expertise and publication profile.
- (c) The referees will comment on the papers' eligibility for publication in *Inkanyiso*, taking originality into account as well as the quality of research, argument, use of sources and writing style. Each referee will be granted not more than one month for this process.
- (d) The Reviewers' Evaluation Form will be enclosed with each manuscript for the reviewer's guidance. It will require a referee to classify her or his response to a paper in one of four categories: acceptance as is; acceptance with specified changes; rejection with the possibility of revision and resubmission for another issue; and rejection.
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- (f) Accepted authors should make the required corrections and email their final document to the Editor within the time specified.
- (g) The Editor, after verification, compiles all the manuscripts into an issue with the addition of an appropriate introduction and then sends the issue to the publisher.
- (h) Publication is normally expected within the specified dates that will normally be June and December each year.
- (i) It is our policy to encourage and support novice and established authors. However, in order to improve on the quality of publications, manuscripts that are unanimously recommended by at least two reviewers for substantive revision or rejection may not be published.

Page fees

Page fees may be levied to cover the costs of publication once the Journal is SAPSE accredited.

Manuscript requirements

Length of Articles

These should comprise 4000-8000 words, including the list of works cited and notes. Shorter essays (500-2000 words) such as book reviews and debates on topics introduced by specific papers may be accepted.

Format

Papers should be submitted electronically, as email attachments formatted in a recent version of MsWord or Rich Text Format. While each article should be accompanied by a note in which the author provides his or her full names, personal telephone number and email address, the article itself should be stripped of all references to the author's identity. This is in order to assist the blind review process.

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Numbered subheadings may be used throughout the article, but are not compulsory unless referees request them. Single quotation marks are used in Harvard style for direct quotations from texts and for 'mention' of words and phrases to be discussed or defined. Double quotation marks are used only for a quotation-within-a-quotation. End punctuation is placed *after* the closing quotation mark.

Footnotes should be used very sparingly or not at all. If possible all information should be included in the main text. If footnotes are used, they should not exceed about five in number and should not be used for references, only for parenthetical material not directly relevant to the argument in hand but of use or interest to a researcher in the field.

Textual references should be used in preference to notes wherever possible. All textual references should include page numbers, unless the original text does not display page numbers. A reference should accompany almost any mention of a text, not only direct quotations from it. Textual references normally include the author's surname, the date of publication and the relevant page numbers. They are punctuated thus, with a colon separating date and page number, but no space after the colon: (Thorpe 1999:135-141).

The list of Works Cited should include all texts referred to in the article and no other texts. The list should be alphabetized, unnumbered and arranged on the page as indicated in the examples below. Each item in the list should include the following, in the order designated: author's surname; author's initials or names (depending on how the author is designated in the text described); date of publication; title and subtitle, separated by a colon (upper-case used only for the first letter of the first word); place of publication and publisher.

Please note that the 'place of publication' *must* be a town or city; it may not be a country, province, state or other area. The place of publication must *precede* the publisher's name and be separated from it by a colon. A list follows that demonstrates the required punctuation and arrangement. If an author uses a type of text not included in this list, a more comprehensive handbook of Harvard Style should be consulted.

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Buthelezi, Mangosuthu. 1990. Personal interview on August 5, 1990. Empangeni. '[Cassette recording in possession of author.] **[INTERVIEW]**

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Umberto Eco's *The Mysterious Flame of Queen Loana*: A conduit for culture, consciousness and cognition

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Eco's novel describes the popular culture of the Italian fascist period, by deconstructing signs, symbols and signals from a particular period in the lives of both the author and his protagonist. In this sense, the novel can be regarded as a cross-over between two genres, the literary and historical. However, the mixture of art and text as a medium for storytelling, or for making references to the human condition, places it in the genre of the graphic novel.

This article explores the novel on three levels. A surface reading establishes it as an historical construct, which prioritizes unofficial memory and popular culture. On a deeper level, however, the protagonist's search into his past can be regarded, in a Jungian sense, as an archetypal journey of discovery. On a third level the ancestral home, Solara, can be regarded as a metaphor for, on the one hand, the collective unconscious, where recurring symbols and motifs act as transformational metaphors and often serve as links between states and levels of consciousness and, on the other hand, for the human brain.

Keywords: postmodernist literature, graphic novel, culture, archetypes

Introduction

There has been much debate over the last decade in academic research circles on the status of postmodernist literature as a literary movement. One of the main reasons for this debate is a general lack of agreement on the characteristics of postmodernist fiction, and the difficulty to formulate a precise definition of the concept. The broad consensus, according to Keep, McLaughlin and Parmar (2000) is that postmodernist fiction is generally marked by one or more of the following:

- its playfulness with language
- experimentation in the form of the novel
 - lesser reliance on traditional narrative form
 - lesser reliance on traditional character development
 - experimentation with point of view
- experimentation with the way time is conveyed in the novel
- mixture of 'high art' and popular culture
- interest in metafiction, that is, fiction about the nature of fiction
- suspension of the barriers between reality and fiction.

Umberto Eco's novel *The Mysterious Flame of Queen Loana*, measured against the characteristics listed, is a postmodernistic novel. By way of intertextual references based on graphic images reprinted from books, magazines, comics and newspapers from a specific era, he explores popular culture by dissecting popular fiction. However, the huge collection of historical artefacts from Italy under Mussolini's reign and World War II which forms the backbone of much of the narrative, places the novel within the postmodernistic historical genre (Danyté, 2007). As a postmodernistic historical novel it has many features in common with the characteristics listed, yet it also differs in significant ways by using a narrative formula and combining historical events with purely fictional ones. According to Danyté, historical fiction makes use of a new kind of historical research that allows for the combination of intertexts and writing to record 'popular' or 'unofficial memory'. In Eco's novel this memory is a personal one, as well as one which he uses to describe the popular culture of the Italian fascist period. In an interview the author stated that although the images portrayed in the novel are the images from his personal memorabilia, he did not want to write his own biography, but rather that of a nation (Danyté, 2007:38). He analyses its internal contradictions in order to probe the extent to which ordinary Italians became collaborators in fascism after Benito Mussolini came into power in 1922. It is in this period that both Eco and his protagonist Bodoni were born and went to school.

In this sense, the novel can be regarded as a cross-over between two genres, the literary and historical. However, the mixture of art and text as a medium for storytelling, or for making references to the human condition, places it in the genre of the graphic novel, which is often regarded as a sub-genre of the postmodernistic genre.

1. Marie Spruyt completed her D.Litt in Cognitive Linguistics at the University of Zululand in 1999.

The graphic novel

According to Eisner (1985) the graphic novel deploys images and words, each in carefully balanced proportion within the limitations of the medium, so that the reader not only has to contend with the elements of fiction (plot, character, setting, theme) but also the syntax or grammar of graphic art, ie perspective, symmetry, colour, font, etc. A concise definition of the graphic novel, according to Bertens and De Haen cited by Burger (1994), would be its capacity to consolidate differing influences into a graphic and literary format. These influences range from folkloric elements to mythical and legendary history, often incorporating folk beliefs with related beliefs and characterizations. The graphic novel, according to Eisner (1985), is often regarded as a museum of art, literature, and history all rolled into one. From this it follows that it will be impossible to find one, true, meaning in a text. The active participation of the reader is therefore required, as proposed by Eco (1979); that he engages intellectually and imaginatively and as such becomes co-creator of the text.

The story unfolds on more than one level and in different time spans; the narrative investigates popular culture and is supported by illustrations from various sources, including comic books, pulp fiction, movies, and extracts from popular songs of World War II. The main time frame places the story in contemporary Italy and within the author's lifetime. An exploration of his past takes place through the experiences of the novel's protagonist, so that the secondary time frames cover his childhood and a specific period of Italian history. The main character is aptly named Giambattista Bodoni, the same name as a famous creator of typography in the late 18th century. Bodoni is a highly cultivated 60-year old bookdealer, who has a stroke and then loses a vital part of his memory. He no longer has access to his episodic or autobiographical memory; in short, those experiences that encapsulate his identity and his sense of self.

To his friends and family Bodoni is known as Yambo, a name taken from an Italian cartoon character. The reader is therefore confronted with the biographical nature of the novel (Eco's own childhood in Italy), and a fictional character, Yambo, who due to his loss of memory is compelled to journey into his past by way of reminiscences from his childhood in order to recapture his identity. His wife, Paola, suggests that he visits Solara, the ancestral home where Yambo spent all his childhood summers and vacations, as well as two years during World War II. It is here, Paola feels, that he will regain his memory. Yambo's search into his past by way of his grandfather's collection of books, movie posters, postcards, old magazines and other memorabilia indeed becomes a route to recall, and in the process his most significant memories and deepest feelings are revealed.

'Fog' and 'flame' as unifying themes

The novel is divided into three parts: Part One: *The Incident*; Part Two: *Paper Memory*, and Part Three: *OI NOΣΤΟΙ* (Greek for *The Return*, as 'a return to excellence', referring to Odysseus' return to Ithaca (Piccone, 2004).

A recurring theme in all three sections is Yambo's preoccupation with fog. In Part One he wakes up after the stroke ('the incident'), 'suspended in a milky gray' (p.1). He remembers snippets of information from literature describing fog in a variety of situations, and also uses it to express his dilemma: 'But I don't know who I am, you see? There's fog in Val Padana' (p.16), referring to a geographical location but also metaphorically to his mind. His wife informs him 'You were fascinated by fog. You used to say that you were born in it.' (p.32). In Part Two, during his exploration at Solara of the many rooms and stacks of memorabilia (his 'paper memory'), he finds that 'at every turn I would approach a revelation, and then I would come to a stop on the edge of a cliff, the chasm invisible before me in the fog' (p.256). He realises that, like Sherlock Holmes, in his search he would have 'to combat the fog' (p.152).

Another intentional recurrent repetition is a mysterious flame which occurs as a flare of recognition. In Part One he describes the flame as 'if someone were to come here from the fourth dimension and touch us from the inside – say on the pylorus. What does it feel like when someone tickles your pylorus? I would say ... a mysterious flame' (p.67).

In Part Two, at Solara, he experiences the flame when he enters his parents' bedroom, and again when he finds the image of a beautiful, blonde woman in a magazine (p.104). Later he finds an illustrated magazine of 'pallid damsels'; one of these images causes a 'very' mysterious flame (p.104), as if he has seen it somewhere before. It is when he discovers a magazine entitled *The Mysterious Flame of Queen Loana* that he finds the explanation for the mysterious flames; that he was 'on the cusp of some final revelation' (p.251).

Part Three starts with a chapter entitled *You're back at last, Friend Mist*, and ends with *Lovely thou art as the Sun*. He has regained his memory, but is enveloped in 'real' fog, a coma. He thinks, feels, recalls (p.309) but is unable to communicate. However, everything is now clear to him: 'in the coma's silence, I understand better all that has happened to me' (p.323). Finally, as he experiences the flame of Queen Loana once more, he realises that a 'faint, mouse-coloured fumifugium is spreading'; he 'feels a cold gust', and that 'the sun (is) turning black' (p.449). Hence, in his dying moments, the 'mist' (fog) and the 'sun' (flames) reassert themselves as guiding, central elements within the plot, which not only motivate Yambo's actions but also dictate his choices.

Heroic fiction as an archetypal journey to self-discovery

Modern literary criticism, according to Fishbane (1989), acknowledges that a person's inner world is created by fragments of different texts, which live together in the mind, one qualifying another. The moral universe is thus shaped by *King Lear*, *Moby Dick* or *Madame Bovary*, just as much as by the Bible. The human mind rarely absorbs texts whole but rather as isolated images, phrases and gobbets that live in the mind in myriad, fluid groupings, acting and reacting on one another. Very often these memories are the products of archetypal stories of encounters between heroic figures and human beings, which help the reader or listener to see attributes such as self-control, moral courage, generosity or noble deeds as ideal dimensions of their own lives. Heroic tales of physical courage and exciting events, according to Waggoner (1978), allow the reader to identify with the hero not only because he is good, but because he is strong, clever and resourceful.

To access one's inner world, one needs to be able to connect to autobiographical memories which, according to Singer (undated) cited by Chaudhuri (2008), are vital in piecing together identities. They provide clues to subconscious desires; how one sees oneself, and how one wants to be seen. Self-defining memories are those that refer to the turning-point moments in life, such as meeting a partner, or the birth of a child, and reveal not only how identity has changed and developed over time, but also how past experiences are framed. People remember most vividly events that happened to them between the ages of 10 to 30, when the most 'firsts' occur. This is also the time of strong emotions, triggering activity in a part of the brain called the amygdala, which makes memory more active. It is between these two ages that the process of defining oneself takes place. The stories that a person tells about his past give clues to better understanding himself. To recover forgotten memories is therefore vital in order to reconnect one to the future.

Yambo, having lost his autobiographical memory, immerses himself in paper memories of his childhood stacked away in the many rooms at Solara. As he progresses from room to room and from one stack of paper memories to the other, he begins piecing together images, phrases, sounds and smells of his forgotten past. He finds that much of his 'first' memories are linked to the world of fantasy, adventures and deeds of heroism, played out by a variety of fictional characters. One of these characters is Ciuffettino, created by a certain Yambo. Ciuffettino is described as a boy with 'an immense quiff' (much like the young Bodoni's own quiff), whose adventures take place in fairy-tale settings such as dark, brooding castles, with wolves in magical forests and underwater visions (p.134). Bodoni identifies with the character as the time and place where 'the Yambo I am now, and the one I wanted to be, was born'.

As a hero figure the young Yambo played out Ciuffettino's adventures; as an adult he again traverses the route of discovery. His first intimation that his search for his past also involves a treasure is the comic book characters Clarabelle and Mickey Mouse, and their search for a long-buried treasure (p.71). Yambo instinctively knows that in order to rediscover his past, like the comic book characters, he will have to 'triangulate' and 'redo the triangulation', until he finds 'exactly in that spot, the treasure' (p. 71).

Yambo's search into his past, in Jungian terms, can therefore be regarded as not only to restore his memory, but ultimately to find the treasure – his spiritual, inner self. After the stroke he finds that although he had retained his encyclopaedical memory, '(W)hatever feelings I once had were no longer mine ... I had lost my soul' (p.21). The search becomes a retracing of a journey to manhood which, according to De Laszlo (1959) cited by Brozo (2002), is associated with a kind of 'right inner passage to become fine young men and honourable adults'. Positive male archetypes are an adolescent boy's guides along this interior journey. Jung (1964) found evidence for these archetypes in the nearly identical motifs and tales of manhood that appear in widely separate cultures, captured in the tribal stories, songs, poems and fairy tales of different cultures.

Using archetypes to interpret literature is a highly common practice in literary criticism (Cowden, Viders & Lefever, 2000). Brozo (2002) identifies ten male archetypes which, he suggests, can be helpful to guide adolescent boys through the archetypal world of the male psyche. These images of masculinity, derived from the work of Jung (1964) and Arnold (1995), 'may be thought of as signposts along a boy's psychic journey to claim or reclaim an honourable masculine identity' (Brozo, 2002). The archetypes are Pilgrim, Patriarch, King, Warrior, Magician, Wildman, Healer, Prophet, Trickster, and Lover. As Yambo relives his childhood during his research into his paper memory, he evokes many of these archetypes through the fictional characters that he identified with while growing up. The Lover archetype, for instance, is induced by Yambo's re-introduction to Sibilla, his beautiful, blond assistant at his place of work, after his first stroke. She sparks the 'mysterious flame' through thoughts and fantasies of her (p.68). He feels that he may one day be able to penetrate the fog 'if Sibilla was there to lead me by the hand' (p.62).

Solara, place of light (or enlightenment)

Fantasy, according to Jung, Adler and Hull (1981), is the living union of the inner and outer worlds, 'the well of our collective unconscious', that is, recurring symbols and motifs that act as transformational metaphors and often serve as

links between states and levels of consciousness, bridging different domains of reality. Yambo's journey similarly takes place on different levels of reality: a research of the memorabilia stored away in the immense rooms at Solara, with 'attics like the Postojna caves' (p.33), and a retracing of his journey from childhood to manhood, all the while activating the archetypes which mark his progress, including that of sexual awakening. He reads a passage from the *Confessions*: 'memories gather all this in its vast cavern, in its hidden and ineffable recesses ...' (p.38). 'Your cavern is in the country house,' his wife suggests (p.73). The 'caverns' at Solara thus become not only a place but also a state of mind, or a conceptual metaphor, as proposed by Lakoff and Turner (1980).

The home as a metaphor was experienced by Jung in a dream which he later described to Sigmund Freud (Swart, 2007). In the dream Jung finds himself on the top floor of his home and on his way down he investigates each level. Each conspicuous item, each observation, represents a perception. He systematically descends to the lower floors and eventually reaches the cellar. The descending levels each mark an older era; the building material used in the lower section is older than that of the level above. He is literally moving towards earlier stages of a younger, forgotten and unconscious self. Each room in the house thus represents an emotional and psychological compartment of the mind that upon investigation reveals aspects of not only the psyche, but also the internal structures and processes that are involved in the acquisition and use of knowledge.

Specific regions in the brain play a role in the processing of emotional and cognitive events. Cognitive functions involve the mental process of knowing, including sensation, perception, attention, learning, reasoning, language, thinking and memory (Sci-Tech Encyclopaedia). Memory, according to Edelman (1990), is the biology that creates consciousness by recovering the past in the present. If no comparison took place between value and past categorizations to form a special memory, consciousness would not appear.

The actual physiological processes involved in Yambo's loss of memory are therefore pivotal to the understanding of the home as metaphor. He suffered a stroke that affected areas in the brain where memories are stored (p.12-13). His physician describes the physiological processes involved: two cerebral networks are affected; the one implicit that regulates automatic recall, like the brushing of teeth, the other explicit, with two parts, the semantic memory and the episodic memory. Semantic memory involves categories, words, its meanings and associations as strategies for communication and for the ordering of society, while episodic memory establishes the link between the past, present and future. Yambo has not lost his semantic memory, but the episodes of his life. He can thus remember all the things he read in a book somewhere, but not the things associated with his direct experience.

Autobiographical memories are distributed over many neural systems: from frontal regions involved in retrieving episodic memories to posterior regions involved in sensory processing (Rubin, 2005). The amygdala, for instance, is involved in emotion, and the hippocampus in episodic encoding and retrieval. Visual memory plays a central role in autobiographical memory: the strength of recollection of an event is predicted best by the vividness of its visual imagery. On the advice of Yambo's physician that he returns to a familiar environment to '(L)ook around, touch things, smell them, read newspapers, watch TV, go hunting for images' (p.26), he returns to Solara. He wanders up and down stairways, in corridors and through the many rooms, analogous to the neural systems involved in memory retrieval, and experiences mysterious 'flames' triggered by an image, a smell, or a sound. His brain is thus constructing a new profile of neuronal excitation, that is, the seeking of new neural connections that will reveal his identity.

Exploring the caverns

As he arrives at Solara, Yambo defecates in the vineyard (p.86) which marks the entrance to the main house. He often did this as a boy, and now finds the act comforting, akin to the triangulation process performed by Clarabelle in her quest for the lost treasure: it was 'an instant of reuniting with my old, forgotten self'. He sees the act as a symbol to mark the re-entering of the world of his childhood, the beginning of his journey, and a pathway to the treasure that is waiting to be discovered.

He enters the house and wanders from room to room, recognizing objects and paraphernalia, reliving the memories attached to them. The left wing is familiar and comforting, to be equated with the implicit process of automatic memory recall as well as with the left hemisphere of the brain, which presides over rational relationships and verbal language. The right wing is the older part of the building and needs a set of keys, one for each door that he opens. This part of the house not only represents Yambo's lost explicit episodic memories which can only be rediscovered through reconstructing his past, but also the right hemisphere of the brain, which deals with emotion and the visual universe (p.275). He finds keys, or triggers, to these memories: on a stairway, for instance, a painting of the *Stairway to Life*, with images of a cradle and babies on the first step, then step by step, figures to radiant adulthood, descending to old-age and the image of Death. In the other rooms are prints with faces and costumes depicting all the races and people of the world (p.95). In his parents' bedroom which is also his birthplace, he experiences the 'mysterious flame'; this experience, together with the images on

the stairs, serve as markers to his personal history that places him within an immediate family circle and the extended global community. The neural connections to the basic tenets of his existence, from birth to death, are thus re-established.

The study, which he remembers as a vast repository of books, is strangely empty, 'its sobriety...deathly' (p.99). The shelves now only contain atlases, dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and French magazines. Thus the 'storehouse', the treasure rooms (p.103) of his explicit memories, is empty. In one of the French magazines, though, he finds the profile of a woman with long golden hair, like a 'fallen angel', and suffers not a flame, but 'an actual tachycardia, this time' (p.104). It is an image, he finds, that has been with him as a child, a boy, an adolescent, and on the threshold to adulthood; it was Sibilla's profile. The search at Solara from that moment takes on a new valence – he not only needs to know what happened before Solara, but also afterwards.

Amalia, the housekeeper, informs him that the contents of the study have been moved up to the attic. Yambo compares the attic to a cellar: the latter subterranean, dark, damp, always cool, with natural underground passages, where one needs a candle or a torch. The attic, on the other hand, extends over the three wings of the house, just beneath the roof. It is hot and humid with light coming from a series of dormer windows and skylights, barely filtering through the piles of junk. He had always thought that cellars symbolized the primordial, or the mother's womb with their amniotic dampness, but now realises that 'If a cellar prefigures the underworld, an attic promises a...paradise' (p.120), a region that can be regarded as one of 'supreme felicity or delight'. The attic is 'an endless labyrinth' with many recesses and shelves for storage (p.119), reminiscent of the neocortex, or newer portion of the brain, with billions of cells arranged in layers, and millions of meters of wiring. It serves as the centre of higher mental functions which permit vision, touch, hearing, movement, and every other feat of cognition (Encyclopaedia Britannica).

Yambo spends many days in the attic in frenzied reading, intent on retracing and reconstructing remote events. He (re)discovers his elementary and middle school years between 1937 and 1945, as well as the civic and historiographic details of the war and fascism, and with it his first intimations of good and evil and a social conscience shaped by events captured in books, propaganda postcards, street posters, and songs.

The attic had taught Yambo a lot about history and the world at large, but he still could not remember – he 'was still missing some link, perhaps many links' (p.211). He was missing the details of his emotional development during a crucial stage of his boyhood; he needed to re-establish the 'firsts' that defined his life as an adult. He therefore had to find his own schoolbooks, comic books and comic albums. Was he the Yambo shaped by school and (fascist) public education, the Yambo of the many voyages and adventures, of Cuiffettino, or all of them (p.212)?

Into the crypt

A trapdoor in the attic floor leads down into a hidden chamber, a chapel that has been walled up since the war. It is here that Yambo finds the comic books and albums of his childhood (1936-1945) that he had hidden there as an adolescent – Time's Temple, he calls it; his personal history. The trapdoor thus represents a pathway to the earliest stages of a younger, forgotten and unconscious self. He relives the worlds of fantasy and fairy-tale characters – Felix the Cat, the Katzenjammer Kids, Jiggs and Maggie, and the mock-heroic adventures of comic book characters playing out the war in aeroplanes, tanks, torpedo boats and submarines. Flash Gordon provides him with a first image of a hero – 'fighting some kind of war of liberation in an Absolute Nowhere' (p.237). Mandrake the Magician he regards as a 'bourgeois hero', as is Secret Agent X-9. These archetypal characters open up another world to him where the versions of good and evil differ from those that he had found in the attic.

But he also finds here the first revelation of 'the eternal feminine' (p.246). A series of a women's magazine carries illustrations of actresses, which helped him form an ideal, archetypal figure which he now realises he has pursued his whole life. He was assuming the toga of manhood at the time, and had decided to 'conserve in a crypt' a past to which he could devote his adult nostalgia (p.251). Among the many albums he stumbles on is one with a multicoloured cover entitled *The Mysterious Flame of Queen Loana*. Therein lay the explanation for the mysterious flames that had shaken him since his reawakening, and his journey to Solara was finally acquiring a meaning. He had forgotten the historical Loana, but had remembered the title, and 'years later, his memory in shambles, he had reactivated the flame's name to signal the reverberation of forgotten delights' (p.253).

He later discovers through an acquaintance in the village near Solara that in his third year at high school he had had a crush on a girl he remembers as Lila Saba, who vanished in the same year. She had blond hair, a face both angelic and devilish, but had died at age eighteen – a fact that Yambo only now learns, as well as that her name was not Lila. Yambo realises that he had been pursuing this lost love all his life, that Lila Saba was a nick-name for Sibilla.

But still the solution lay elsewhere. He had found the links to his past, but nothing to connect him to the present, or the future: 'the mist was thickening', the 'fog pervasive' (p.297). He rummages through a box and to his astonishment

finds an extremely rare and valuable Shakespeare First Edition dated 1623; the treasure, at last. It is an invitation to return to Milan, to the present, to his profession, and to his future. Excitement at the find muddles his thoughts, his face blazes with heat, his heart races – and he suffers a second stroke.

You're back at last, Friend Mist

Yambo is in a coma. He has regained his memory, can think and feel, but senses nothing outside of himself, and cannot move a finger or a leg. Although he shows no cerebral activity, he still has interior activity. He is assailed by memories appearing in logical sequence, and is able to put them back in chronological sequence. This process of remembering soon turns into a cascade of paper and real memory, and it becomes difficult for him to distinguish between the two. The mysterious flame of Queen Loana is burning his 'crumpled-parchment frontal lobes' (p.448), and he suspects that he might be dying. At last he would find what he has looked for all his life, from Paola to Sibilla, and be at peace; his search for lost time successful; like Odysseus, a return to Ithaca. The fog envelopes him, and the light fades. He dies of a third and fatal stroke.

Conclusion

As is the case with Eco's previous works of fiction, *The Mysterious Flame of Queen Loana* is a many-layered construct. A surface reading establishes the novel's role as a conduit for culture by combining historical events with fictional ones: Yambo finds that a fascist society allows a child to laboriously construct a social conscience. The novel thus suggests, in accordance with Danyté (2007), that moral knowledge can come from popular culture, even comic book narratives that seem to have no depth or literary merit, but whose profound effect on a child's imagination leads to ethical judgments. On a deeper level, however, it is also an archetypal journey of discovery. The journey coincides with the physical process of discovery at Solara: the heroic adventures of his paper heroes give rise to inward and outer struggles that guided the young Yambo on his journey to manhood. The physical journey involves the physiological processes involved with storing and retrieving memory – 'recovering the past in the present', in accordance with Edelman (1990). The novel therefore also serves as a conduit for consciousness. Solara can thus be viewed as a transformational metaphor (Lakoff & Turner, 1980); on the one hand the house portrays Yambo's psychical condition, in a Jungian sense the disclosure of deeper psychological truths. On the other hand the (re)discovery of aspects of his life involves certain physiological processes that influence his mental capacity. The novel can therefore also be viewed as a conduit for cognition.

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The usage of African languages in three selected contemporary German novels set in Africa

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This paper will focus on the use of indigenous African languages as well as the acquisition of language as a motif in selected contemporary German novels set in Africa. The aim of this paper is to show where the portrayal of indigenous languages fits into the quest for high sale figures as the German contemporary novel set in Africa aims to provide the greatest amount of entertainment to the largest number of readers (cf. Nusser 2000:13; Jordaan 2008:31). The word 'contemporary' refers to approximately the last ten years and 'German' to novels written in the German language, i.e. novels from Switzerland (for example) are also included. The nature, quantity and function of utterances from three selected contemporary German novels will be presented, in order to show how the use of African languages in these novels can create, perpetuate and resolve suspense in the plot.

Keywords: African languages, German novels, *Ein Land das Himmel heißt*, *Die weiße Jägerin*, *Afrika mon Amour*, Africa

Introduction and theoretical overview

Africa, as a setting for and motif in fiction, non-fiction, biography, autobiography and film sells well in German-speaking countries. This fact as well as possible reasons for it is explored by various studies. My Masters thesis, for example, explored the similarities between various German novels set in Africa, mainly the repetition and popularity of the white woman as a main character. This study is titled *Zur Darstellung der weißen Frau als Hauptfigur in ausgewählten Unterhaltungsromane der Gegenwart mit Afrikabezug*. (Regarding the depiction of the white woman as a main character in selected contemporary popular German novels set in Africa). The nature of the 'Unterhaltungsroman', the problem of classifying literature, and specifically Nusser's theoretical approach to the working of the Unterhaltungsroman and the Trivialroman, formed a significant part of the theoretical framework of the thesis. This paper seeks not to repeat the findings of the thesis, but to explore a feature of these novels not pursued in the thesis, namely their usage of African languages (Jordaan 2008). Dirk Götsche refers to these novels as part of an 'Africa-Boom' in contemporary literature written in the German language, a definition that he quotes from a lexicon (Götsche 2003:162). Ingrid Laurien also comments on the popularity of these novels portraying Africa as a 'continent of feminine longing', providing a space where figures, especially white women, can fulfil their dreams. And the more extreme these stories, especially autobiographical encounters, the better they sell. She suggests that the portrayal of Africa is less about Africa and more about experiences of Africa (Laurien 2004:31-44). Furthermore, authors such as Ruth Mayer argue that it is not even Africa, but rather a series of Artificial Africas that are portrayed in these novels, in order to entertain (for example: Mayer 2002:1). In addition to the literature, a quick glance through bookshops in Germany or a search in book-selling Internet sites reveals a considerable number of novels boasting a colourful sunset on the cover and promising intrigue, suspense, drama and adventure in Africa.

Most of these novels find themselves to a greater or lesser extent confined to what is classified as 'Unterhaltungsliteratur' (entertainment literature or popular literature). Restricting though such a term may be, regarding these novels as popular fiction and analysing them as such brings one closer to the reason these novels are popular and why many of them become so-called bestsellers.

Peter Nusser, among many others, has done some extensive theoretical work on analysing the Unterhaltungsliteratur and Trivialliteratur. The working of an Unterhaltungsroman can be summed up as saying that the reader needs to be moved from his or her comfort zone into a state of unrest and to have that state of comfort restored again at the end in order to create and resolve tension (Nusser 1991:120-123). In the contemporary Unterhaltungsliteratur set in Africa the emphasis is on not only creating and resolving tension but also on maintaining the tension by repeating the cycle (Nusser 1991:120; Jordaan 2008:15-17, 98-99).

The page-turning tension in novels such as the three used for the purposes of this paper is created by various agents, many of which are repetitive (Jordaan 2008:92-99). The aim of this paper is to discuss African languages in such novels, not only those utterances used in order to create setting and local flavour in the novels, but also those used to entertain as many readers as possible by supporting the necessary suspense. An utterance in Swahili such as

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Na kwa moyo wangu napenda ninyi wote kurudi wazima. Kwaheri Askaris ... !
(Ackermann 2006 [2005]:89)

is not intended to be understood by the reader at first glance. This sentence comes from the novel *Die Weiße Jägerin* (Ackermann 2006 [2005]). It is explained in the preceding paragraph in the novel as being a motivational address to the Askaris (by means of an interpreter) leaving to fight for Germany, along with a wish that they return home safely. Not all such phrases are treated in this manner. Some utterances are translated straight away, and others are left for the context to explain them. This is especially true of greetings and interjections. The usage is carefully done, whether sparsely as in *Afrika, mon Amour* or abundantly as in *Die Weiße Jägerin*.

A glance over the African languages in German novels set in Africa reveal that the languages used in these novels are mostly Swahili, Zulu and Maa. To make matters more complex, languages such as French, Arabic, Greek, English and Afrikaans also enter the picture. With the latter group of languages it is often hard to tell which is being used by the characters, because in most cases only German is used to narrate the events. On the contrary, every instance where an indigenous African language is used is clearly indicated, by phrases such as 'und das in korrektestem Zulu' (Gercke 2006 [2002]: 218), 'and in the most correct Zulu, at that'. (All such translations from German into English are my own.)

More important for the purpose of this paper than the issue of which African languages are used, however, is the issue of how to present the different instances when an African language is used directly or indirectly in order to show that additional reasons apart from creating an authentic scene are at play. As mentioned above, tension or suspense form an integral part of these novels. The usage of African languages maintains and resolves tension in line with my understanding of Nusser's model as explained earlier in this paper.

The novels

I shall now take a look at the usage of African languages in the three novels selected for this study, first by briefly introducing the novels. These brief summaries are inadequate for grasping the plots of the novels, because a staggering number of events take place in each novel. The aim of these summaries is rather to help the reader to differentiate between the three novels used in this paper.

Ein Land, das Himmel heißt ('A Land that is Called Heaven') by the female author, Stefanie Gercke (2002), is set in late-Apartheid and post-Apartheid South Africa (Kwazulu-Natal), featuring the young Jill Court. She is of German, British and Afrikaans descent and the novel tells of the many catastrophes she survives in an ongoing battle to save her family farm and keep it in the hands of her family.

Die weiße Jägerin ('The White Huntress') by the male author Rolf Ackermann is a fictionalised biography, telling the story of the famous German huntress, Margarete von Trappe. Set in Prussia and German East Africa, Margarete's journey to Africa with her husband, the hardships that she suffers, her struggle to survive and protect her farm and her children and her passionate love for the Greek, Anthimos, are depicted against a historical backdrop. A lot of attention is given to the historical details of the German occupation of German East Africa as well as Germany's defence of the colony against Britain during the First World War.

Chris Schnalke (a male author as well) wrote *Afrika, mon Amour* ('Africa, My Love'), the subject of a three-part television series in Germany. This novel, published in 2007, is also marketed as a 'Buch zum Film' (book to the film). Also set during the German colonial expansion and the First World War, this novel also features mainly Prussia and German East Africa. It tells the story of Katharina von Strahlberger's struggle for survival in a colony at war after the infidelity of her husband, the death of her sons, the loss of her possessions and the threatening of her own life.

However similar many of the motifs, scenes and language in these novels may be, they are still very different novels in many ways, including historical setting, style and even thickness of the actual book. Their differences do not, however, detract from the fact that even very dissimilar uses of different African languages in these novels on closer scrutiny show up great similarities.

The African languages in the novels

In order to examine the usage of African languages in these novels, one needs to establish which African languages are being used, how often these languages are used, how they are used and which characters use these languages.

In *Ein Land, das Himmel heißt*, Zulu is the African language used. In *Die weiße Jägerin* both Maa and Swahili feature quite prominently. And in *Afrika, mon Amour* Swahili features, albeit much less than in the other two novels. Having read several other novels of this genre, I can say that these three languages are certainly among those most frequently used in this kind of novel, along with some Namibian languages.

For how often these languages are used, one needs to look at the form in which they are presented to the reader. In this study a distinction is made between the usage of indigenous African languages by speakers of the language and that of non-speakers of the language. Another distinction is made between the direct representation of the language and translated or explained uses of utterances without using the original language first. Certain words such as greetings and interjections are frequently retained in the original language without direct translations.

As mentioned earlier, it is clearly indicated in most cases where African languages are being used in the novel, as opposed to the usage of other languages. These indications often take the form of comments by the narrator on the quality of non-speakers' usage. As a result of these indications, it is possible to count the number of utterances in African languages as well as the utterances in African languages that are presented in translation only. For the purposes of this paper, I have done an approximate count of the number of pages in the three novels where African languages are used by characters. In many instances the same page contains utterances by characters, both speakers and non-speakers of African languages. Some of these utterances are depicted only in German and others in both the original language and German. Such a page will fall into all four categories, and be counted four times. Instances in which the narrator uses a word or phrase from an African language are excluded from this count, but included in the findings of the paper.

I shall now proceed to look at *Ein Land, das Himmel heißt*. On about 141 of the 642 pages, conversations in Zulu or utterances in Zulu by white characters are given in German; on approximately 123 pages such conversations or utterances by Zulu speakers in Zulu are given in German. Zulu words, printed in Zulu and used by white characters can be found on roughly 23 pages and Zulu words used by Zulu speakers and given in Zulu, on about 40 pages (Gercke 2006).

In *Die weiße Jägerin*, several languages play an important part in the novel. The narration features numerous words from Maa and Swahili. As far as utterances by characters are concerned, the approximately 403 pages of the narration include an approximate 41 pages where non-speakers of African languages use Swahili and 28 pages where utterances by non-speakers of African languages are depicted in German only. About 47 pages depict African-language utterances, by speakers of the languages, in German, whereas approximately 54 pages show utterances in African languages by Africans (Ackermann 2006).

Much less extensive use of African languages is made in *Afrika, mon Amour*. The 306 pages of the narration include more or less 7 pages in which Europeans use Swahili and about 9 pages in which Africans use Swahili. On roughly 8 pages accounts are given in German only of utterances in Swahili by Europeans and 7 pages contain translated accounts in German of Swahili utterances by Africans (Schnalcke 2007).

This roughly sums up the answer to the first two questions mentioned at the beginning of this section. Three functions of African languages that feature in all three of these novels will be identified in the next section, after which more detailed attention will be paid to specific instances where these languages are used and which characters use them.

Three functions

First of all, the usage of African languages in these novels aids the creation of tension or suspense, especially by setting the character apart from other characters. Secondly, it helps to maintain and increase the tension, by revealing aspects of the characters as they develop, or upsetting situations even further. Thirdly, it helps to resolve tension in the novels and restore a sense of harmony for the reader, especially by depicting a sense of safety and belonging (Nusser 1991:121). The object of the following discussion of the three functions is not to generalise, but to direct attention to the potential of the depiction of such utterances to increase the entertainment value of the novel.

Creating tension

In all three novels a language-induced element of surprise occurs early in the plot. This happens each time an utterance in an African language is depicted not in Africa but in Europe, transporting Africa to Europe unexpectedly. In *Die weiße Jägerin*, Margarete learns Swahili before she departs for German East-Africa with her husband Ulrich. The few Swahili words that she has already learnt are described as bubbling from her mouth when she surprises her new language teacher by greeting her in Swahili at their first meeting (Ackermann 2006 [2005]: 101). In the home of the Von Strahlbergers in *Afrika, mon Amour*, Richard von Strahlberger surprises his German guests from German East Africa by greeting them in what they describe as good Swahili (Schnalcke 2007: 19). In both these instances, an African language enters a European home on European soil, literally entering the comfort zone of the reader. Further, the use of an African language by a character in Europe immediately sets the character apart from his or her surroundings and alerts the reader to his or her special qualities. A character that is different from the other characters can act as an immediate catalyst for some action, as the next example will also show.

The incident which could possibly be regarded as the most surprising, in which an African language is suddenly heard in Germany, is the meeting of the protagonist of *Ein Land, das Himmel heißt*, Jill Court, with her future husband Martin. Jill

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and her friend Angelika, gossiping in Zulu at the Oktoberfest in Munich and expecting not to be understood, suddenly hear a male voice behind them:

'Umnuntu wesifase unolimi oluhlanbayo njengolwenyoka!'

.... Die Damen haben eine beißende Zunge wie eine Schlange, hat er gesagt ... (Gercke 2006 [2002]:218)

This is the voice of Martin, saying, according to the German translation, that the ladies have a biting tongue like a snake. The uniqueness of his use of Zulu in a German Beer Tent is increased by the fact that he does not only use a language that is seemingly out of place, but also idiomatic language, only to be understood by those who are very fluent in the language. This sets him even further apart from the other men in the tent and, along with his good looks, draws Jill's attention to him in a very dramatic way. A relationship starts when Jill falls in love with Martin in Germany – a Martin speaking Zulu at a German festival. A dramatic encounter between two future lovers initiates the series of tension-filled encounters between these two characters, and language plays a vital role in creating the element of surprise.

Maintaining tension

Once the tension is created, it needs to be retained in order to keep the pages turning as fast as possible (Jordaan 2008: 31). Existing sources of tension are upset or continued and the following examples will illustrate how the use of African languages can cause such an upset or continuation.

Instances of misunderstanding due to language can result in tension. Sometimes such a misunderstanding upsets a factor that created tension, in order to maintain tension. Margarete Trappe's aptitude for learning Swahili is of no use to her when she realises that there are more African languages to keep in mind:

'Memsahib, diese Massai sprechen kein Kisuaheli ... aber wenn sie reden, dann ist es in ihrer Sprache, dem Maa.' (Ackermann 2006 [2005]:196)

Margarete is told that the Massai do not speak Swahili, but their own language, i.e. Maa, that is, when they speak at all. Margarete is stumped because she did not foresee this development. As soon as the reader is lulled into a comfortable state, believing that the protagonist has the strange African language under control, a jolt is given in the form of another African language and once again there is tension. One characteristic that has set the character apart from other characters has now been upset by a new development. It is left to the reader to read further to discover whether Margarete manages to regain one of her exceptional qualities by learning Maa, thus further developing her role within the narrative.

As the characters develop, certain aspects of their personalities are changed and foregrounded. In all three novels names are given to characters in indigenous African languages, conveying aspects of their personalities. Especially in the cases of Margarete von Trappe and Katharina von Strahlberger, the new names that are given to them in Africa mark the changes they undergo as a result of living on the African continent. Margarete is called 'Jeyo' (mother) and 'Kibereti Kali' (flaming match), depicting two contrasting qualities of this main character: her status among the Massai as a respected woman and, in contrast, her flaming temper that is regarded with fear as well as humour. (Ackermann 2006 [2005]: 125, 259). Furthermore, the giving of the name 'Jeyo' perpetuates the mystery created right at the beginning of the novel, where it is predicted that a creature with dark, silky hair and glass eyes (sunglasses) will change the future of the tribe's next prophet forever. The moment members of the tribe encounter Margarete for the first time and recognise her as the creature in the prophesy, she is given the name. The reader and the characters are still unaware of exactly how she will influence the tribe, and thus the tension increases (Ackermann 2006 [2005]:11, 124-125).

Similarly, the nickname of Katharina von Strahlberger 'Mama Mganga' (Mother Doctor) represents her painful journey, starting out as a young girl forced to drop out of medical school by her family until she is finally dramatically transformed into a rescuer of people facing great hardship (Schnalcke 2007:172). The nicknames help maintain suspense, showing that the characters are seldom static and their behaviour is not predictable.

Using the example of Martin and Jill again, the tension takes a new turn as the cracks in their relationship begin to show. They encounter a few Zulu men on a night out and, instead of ordering them out of their way as Martin does, Jill greets them in Zulu and wishes them a good evening. As the men walk away, they cheerfully cry 'Amandla'. Martin is very upset by this:

'Hast du gehört, was die eben gebrüllt haben? Amandla, Gewalt!' ... 'Es kann auch einfach mit 'Kraft' oder 'Stärke' übersetzt werden', sagte sie versonnen. (Gercke 2006 [2002]:113, 114)

Suddenly Martin's fluency in Zulu does not impress Jill so much. Martin understands the meaning of the word 'Amandla' as 'violence', whereas Jill argues that it can simply mean 'power' as well as 'strength'. This difference of opinion in relation to one word summarises the difference that is starting to show in their characters, forcing them apart. In this way the tension in their relationship builds up. Once again, an African language indicates to the reader, in an indirect way, that something is changing.

Resolving tension

The previous two sections show how the usage of Zulu in *Ein Land, das Himmel heißt* aids the unsettling of the reader by creating surprises and building up tension. But this section shows how the use of Zulu in the novel also creates some tranquil moments, giving the reader a chance to breathe before the next catastrophe occurs:

'Ingane yame ... mein Baby ... musa ukukhala ... weine nicht. Du bist nicht allein', sagte die Zulu, 'lass mich herein.' (Gercke 2006 [2002]:565)

The comforting voice of the Zulu woman, Nelly Dlamini, reaches out to Jill in a moment of desperation when it seems that most of her loved ones have died throughout the course of the plot. Nelly, with whom Jill has many a quarrel in the novel, practically raised Jill as her nanny and tells 'her baby' not to cry, but to let her (Nelly) in, because she (Jill) should not feel alone. The feeling of safety created by these words echoes the various instances in the novel in which the sound of Zulu words or songs is associated with Africa as the 'Heimat' of the characters (for example, Gercke 2006 [2002]:301.)

Once again, the giving of names in African languages to European characters provides an example of how the characters acquire a sense of belonging through language. This sense of safety or belonging creates calming moments in the narrative. Having shown that the giving of nicknames maintains the tension in the novel by revealing aspects of characters' personalities, the use of these names by other characters in the novel also plays a part in the creation of calmer moments in the novel. Following the dramatic surprise of encountering each other in the wilderness, Katharina and her old friend Dr Franz Lukas experience a moment of calm during the narrative when he uses her name 'Mama Mganga' (Schnalcke 2007: 215). Later in the novel, Katharine herself uses the name to try and persuade a man from killing her and her lover with a spear. The mere mention of her name, identifying her as a helper of his people, is enough to make him turn around and flee. This releases the characters from a tense moment of near-death, to the relief of the protagonists as well as the reader (Schnalcke 2007:312).

Africa, or Africa as a setting (Mayer 2002:1) is depicted as a home to non-speakers of African languages. In the case of Jill it is a home, and in the case of Margarete and Katharina it becomes a home. The comfort of belonging eases the tension in the narration at intervals in order to allow spaces where renewed tension can build up. This sense of belonging is created to a large extent by the use of African languages and the characters' mastering of these languages. The African languages follow the trajectory of suspense in the novels mentioned before. At the beginning of the novel the introduction of African languages contributes to the tension, and the same languages, even the same utterances, help to resolve tension. The reader is carried along by the use of these languages to a point where the initial estranging effect of the languages is replaced by a sense of almost understanding these languages, as the reader accustoms himself or herself to the repeated utterances.

Conclusion

In literature set in countries or situations where languages other than the language that the work is written in are spoken, it is not uncommon to find utterances represented in other languages, whether directly or in translation. This paper presents the use of African languages in three selected novels, in order to show that such utterances can serve various narrative purposes. These functions are well illustrated by the use of African languages in contemporary German novels set in Africa. By transporting Africa to another continent, upholding the structures of the popular novel genre and creating emotion, the use of African languages contributes to the entertainment value and, therefore, sales figures of these novels – not as languages understood by the reader, but as tools of writers who understand their readers.

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Is primitivism indigenous to Africa?

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To know where one is coming from is to know where one is heading, and to know where one is heading is to know where one is coming from. A statement such as this is often employed successfully to help maintain an indigenous knowledge system. Western scholars, on the other hand, have effectively excluded all non-Western knowledge systems from the domain of science. In Africa, all that seems left is the maintenance of relics of history in the name of African indigenous knowledge system. Like having to decide between the undesired and the impossible, choosing between obsolescence and the 'impossible African science' seems to leave Africa with only an option of having to extol primitivism. Is Primitivism indigenous to Africa?

Especially in the Western world, culture is often associated with such things as good breeding and finesse in human relations: an educated condition; a well developed taste and capacity for the arts such as music, sculpture, literature ..., in Africa, culture often refers to the way of life of our fore-fathers. In this sense it is often reduced to an unchanging tradition (Okpokunu 2002, 99-126).

Keywords: Indigenous knowledge systems, indigenous knowledge, philosophy, primitivism, Africa

Introduction

Indigenous knowledge systems have come to light in recent times. The African indigenous knowledge system seems to be the African version of indigenous knowledge systems. In order to avoid ambiguities, scholars, promoters and activists of the African indigenous knowledge system (AIKS) try to demarcate between African indigenous knowledge and other bodies of knowledge, e.g. "Western science", "Asian Mystical Knowledge" or "Western knowledge". In doing so, African indigenous knowledge as a concept seems to be portrayed as an African rival or even an alternative to science. Much confusion seems to attend the demarcationist project unnoticed. The main intension of this paper is to identify one of the confusions associated with the problem of distinguishing African indigenous knowledge and to explain how it came about. This confusion has to do with the very concept of indigenous knowledge.

To begin with, the whole academic endeavour involves the history, creation and teleology of knowledge. That is, academic endeavour is all about remembering ideas, creating new ideas and projecting towards new ideas through research. Therefore, the essence of academic studies is research, because research is all about creating knowledge, confirming existing knowledge or disputing knowledge. In spite of this active involvement with issues relating to knowledge, the very concept of knowledge has perpetually remained extremely elusive.

Human beings progress to curiosity from admiration as they begin to wonder events observed in the universe. Along the line, human beings begin to ask questions: how did these things come into being? Why do they exist? What causes the orderliness or disorderliness, the nexus between events and between one event and the other? Am I sure of what I think, smell, feel, taste or hear? Do things and events have ends to which they must lead? Beyond pure curiosity, critical and analytic reflection begin about the issues that are raised. Mere curiosity turns into philosophy and philosophising. This explains why philosophy as an intellectual enterprise deals with knowledge, not necessarily by way of creating knowledge, but most importantly by way of criticising and justifying the existing knowledge (Olatunji, 2003, 1-2). Philosophy is also about justifying or disproving the grounds for claims in every other discipline (Owolabi, 2000, 49). This explains why the question of knowledge is perhaps discussed more in philosophy than in other fields. The existence, nature and possibility of knowledge could be taken for granted in disciplines other than philosophy. In the history of philosophy as an intellectual field, the question of knowledge has remained an intractable one. There have been arguments on the nature of knowledge, the limit of reason, the role of experience in knowledge acquisition, the nature and criteria of truth, the nature and authority of "facts", the nature and possibility of certainty, and the degree of certainty (Miller, 1993, 140). Plato (see Popkin, R.H. and Stroll, A. 1993, 189-223) has defined knowledge as nothing but a justified true belief, and consequently places knowledge on the same pedestal as any belief, faith or even intuition. By implication, Plato blurs the distinctions between the sciences, arts and even religion. Though the shortcomings of Plato's description of knowledge have been pointed out (Gettier 1963, 121-123), scholars are yet to produce any universally accepted description of knowledge.

This paper does not necessarily intend to contest the platonic definition, to endorse it or to erect an alternative definition of knowledge. Rather, it intends to make a sceptical engagement of the conceptual scheme of the Africans in

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relation to what they think they know about themselves and what they think they are capable of achieving rationally. That is, questioning what African scholars think about the mental capability of the Africa people, and explaining why it has come to be the way it is. Specifically, this article makes a sceptical investigation of the very conception of African indigenous knowledge.

Some non-African scholars have excluded Africans from the possibility of creating knowledge scientifically, and African scholars themselves appear to have endorsed some sorts of obsolescence and redundancy as indigenous to Africa. It becomes necessary, therefore, to ask the question "is primitivism indigenous to Africa?" This paper is only a sceptical option; it therefore does not intend to find an answer to the question. Instead, it tends to justify the rationale of the question itself. At the very end of the paper, the question still remains unanswered.

Clarification of concepts

Indigenous Knowledge: Indigenous knowledge is the model, method of acquiring and applying knowledge and the content and products of the acquired and applied knowledge, which authentically belong to a people.

Africa: Africa implies the continent and aborigines of the continent named Africa. By this definition, the White settlers in the different regions of Africa are excluded. An African scholar, therefore, is a scholar (especially those who themselves are Africans), whose theoretical focus is on the continent and people of Africa.

Science: Science refers to the theoretical and practical application of the natural sciences. Consequently, it includes physics, chemistry, biology, astronomy, geology and technology among others.

Primitivism: Primitivism signifies a theoretical position that whatever is primitive is more authentic and necessarily better. It is a belief that superiority necessarily comes with age. In practical terms, it manifests itself in having a preference for whatever is ancient, simple, savage, rudimentary or unsophisticated. Primitive here means antediluvian as opposed to modern, sophisticated or scientific.

African Indigenous Knowledge

Indigenous knowledge, either as an idea or as a system, is usually not discussed in a vacuum. It is usually discussed in connection with what is perceived to be the nature, purpose, values or consequences of indigenous knowledge. Scholars are divided over several issues surrounding the issue of indigenous knowledge, not less than they are divided on the concept and nature of knowledge itself. Wilson (1987) and Quine (1964) would make no distinction between the 'indigenous' and the 'non-indigenous' with reference to knowledge or would argue that knowledge is universal, though Quine never said that all people could attain knowledge. What he means is that whatever qualifies as knowledge must be universal in character. The implication is also that whatever is not universal in character is not knowledge. Consequently, whatever is culture bound or indigenous to a people cannot be knowledge. Hegel (1956) would want to show that there is a difference: the Western, the Chinese, the Indian and even the German knowledge systems could exist, but not the African. Stanley (1987, 117) on the other hand would want to demarcate between the indigenous and the non-indigenous in terms of the science and non-science divide.

It must be remembered that before the emergence of indigenous knowledge as a concept and the African indigenous knowledge as an even more recent concept (Horsthemke, 2004, 31-48), philosophers of science had attempted to demarcate between science and non-science. They tried to demarcate the goals, methods, tools and contents of science from those of other fields like metaphysics, ethics and the arts. Lakatos's popular acceptability criterion (Lakatos, 1978, 1), and Popper's falsifiability criterion (1983, 256) are good examples. The implication of their demarcationist project is that given certain criteria, certain propositions, ideas and practices are mere arts or pseudo-sciences, and consequently excluded from science. Given this demarcation between science and every other human engagement, African indigenous knowledge would either be a science or an art (pseudo-science). It is either science or excluded from science.

While it is not of any interest to take the existence of African indigenous knowledge for granted, it is equally not of interest to debate its existence or otherwise. That is, if scholars say that African indigenous knowledge is different from science, what is it? This question has to do with the nature of African indigenous knowledge itself. Laleye (2007, 164-173) describes African indigenous knowledge as "the traditional knowledge derived from the experience of the Africans as it relates to their cultural dictates and peculiar human conditions."

Laleye argues that African indigenous knowledge, like any other indigenous knowledge system, is targeted at the immediate community from which it emanates and in which it is most relevant and appreciated. Laleye however distinguishes between African indigenous knowledge and the sciences. He argues that while the African indigenous knowledge comes from Africa, science emerges from the Western world, and both the African indigenous knowledge and the sciences are products of the environments from which they developed and emanated.

Wallner (2005, 46-54) distinguishes between science and African indigenous knowledge systems. He writes that science is formalised and systematised with specific epistemological foundations. Nel (2005, 12-14) explores the contested aspects of indigenous knowledge discourses in contrast with Western science. In the view of Nel, Western science is the antithesis of African indigenous knowledge. He goes further and states that the validity of the difference between the two is not in question. According to Masoga (2005, iii-x) "indilinga celebrates the indigenous knowledge that has been passed from generation to generation." The implication is that indigenous knowledge is identified with something that has long existed and has been passed from generation to generation undiluted and uncontaminated.

Lemke, (1998) tries to re-evaluate the contributions of primitive African arts to modern culture. The impression that runs through Lemke's writing is either that modern culture is of external origin or that it has been mostly influenced by external factors, while the primitive arts are indigenous. Lastly, according to Gbenga, (2008, 85-90)

as it is argued by Horton Flakatos (1967), Ruch (1974), Oruka (1975), Wiredu (1991) and Makinde (2007) to mention a few, traditional African languages are not subjected to formal analysis, interpretation and clarification. This explains why African thoughts, beliefs, world-views and their conceptions of reality are considered pre-rational, pre-logical, anti-scientific and primitive. For some, it is on the basis of this non-development of critical and analytical inclinations that the possibility of African philosophy is denied.

Here a demarcation is made, not merely between Africans and Westerners, but most of all between the mental capabilities of Africans and those of Westerners. Gbenga goes further to argue in consonance with a good number of leading African scholars he has mentioned that African languages are yet to be exposed to critical analysis.

If, therefore, African languages do not offer Africans the mental capability for rigorous conceptualisation and theoretical engagement, it does imply on the one hand that African linguists and men of letters are indicted. They are unable to rise to the challenge of producing a language with the mental categories required in the sciences. On the other hand, it means that an African cannot engage in theoretical sciences; he lacks the linguistic tools to do so.

Following the assertions of Gbenga and the other scholars mentioned above, it implies that Africans cannot have a tradition of science. By his understanding, the level of sophistication currently attained by the African languages is too low, and below the requirements of science as a theoretical formulation and practical application of mental categories and models. However, the implications of the sharp demarcation between the nature, concept and content of science and African Indigenous knowledge systems is that if one is modern, sophisticated, knowledge *par excellence* and scientific, the other must necessarily be obsolete, primitive, pseudo-science or mere arts. Put differently, if science is Western, sophisticated and modern, then African indigenous knowledge must be primitive, mere arts or just something different. In addition, if the culture and language of the West is capable of promoting science, African culture should only be capable of promoting something different, like arts, or something lesser like pseudo-science.

If personal experiences are to count as anything tangible in such an academic paper as this, it may be necessary to narrate a few. Sometime in the 1980s, I tried to attend a church service in a new growing church. I was turned back from the entrance for putting on a Yoruba traditional dress. The usher told me that traditional attire and everything traditional were associated with ancestors, demons and Satan. I was told that unless I was in coat, shirt and trousers I could not be allowed to worship with them. A few years later, there was a land dispute between my town (Isua Akoko) and a neighbouring village. The youths from my district were summoned to the market square and directed to go and carry out some militant operation on the disputed land. After the public address, the elders told us to meet them at the site, located several kilometres away along some rocky and narrow footpaths. To my dismay, we met the elders at the site. Being inquisitive, I tried to inquire how those elders, some of whom were in their 80s and 90s, had got to the site before the young boys, but I was hushed. These stories confirm that Western culture is more acceptable even within the Christian religious setting, while the African alternative (as distinguished by scholars) lacks explanations, except probably in secret. It also shows that the attitude of distinguishing between the African and the Western, of seeing the Western as acceptable, and of condemning African idea and materials to secrecy as found among scholars, has influenced even the common people.

During the anti-colonial struggle, for independence in Africa, many of the African nationalists and political elite and leaders had thought that the only way by which Africa could be truly independent was to contrast the African system with the colonial system as far as possible. The anti-colonialist outlook explains the anti-liberalist political fashions of the earliest African leaders, Nkrumah (1964), Kenyatta (1965) and Biko (2000, 360-363). In the same vein, scholars, especially in philosophy, tend to differentiate irreconcilably between African philosophy and what they call Western philosophy. The works of Sodipo (1973, 12-20), Hountondji, P. (1983), Wiredu (2000, 186-204), Oruka (2000, 99-108), and Senghor (1963, 9-22) are good examples.

In another dimension, because African scholars never traced the political problems of the continent further than colonialism, they seem logically justified to tend to oppose anything identifiable with the colonialists. Perhaps, they felt that the rest of the world would see Africa as inferior if the African worldview were found to tally with any other, let alone, the colonial intruders'. Consequently, they try to distance the African views from whatever appears Western and if possible oppose it as much as possible. This explains the call for a return to the "past" which runs through the philosophical discourse of many of the African nationalist scholars like Nkrumah, Senghor and Menkiti. It results in a kind of primitivism: a belief that the former is better and more reliable. This intellectual approach is by no means limited to the earliest nationalist scholars. Even modern Africans still think almost the same way, as has been seen in the cases of Du Toit, Nel, Laleye and others.

Aside from the anti-colonial struggle, the sharp contradistinction between African indigenous knowledge and science could also be traced to the philosophical tradition in which many African scholars have been trained. Makinde (1998: 1-2) argues that the idea of the immortality of soul developed by Pythagoras has led to the distinction between the mind and the body, and between reason and the senses in modern epistemological debate between the rationalists and the empiricists. In Makinde's opinion, it is this ontological dualism that has nurtured modern intellectual culture. The modern intellectual culture is therefore one of demarcating and making sharp distinctions between objects, positions, views, schools of thought and disciplines; it is one in which identification of differences is considered an academic virtue and excellence.

Both the anti-colonial struggle origin and the partitionist intellectual foundation of modern African scholars are only half the truth. The imperial nature of colonialism cannot be ignored. The imperial system of the colonialists would certainly have attempted to suppress the African cultures by illegitimizing them and rendering them as inferior, primitive, obsolete, underdeveloped, uncivilised and eventually as clandestine cultures. There is no point arguing whether colonialism has actually suppressed the African cultures or not. The current position of the numerous European languages in Africa is sufficient evidence for a logical conclusion. Therefore, African scholars, especially those who are victims of the trio of anti-colonial struggle, intellectual partitionism and colonial imperialism would naturally tend to demarcate sharply and irreconcilably between African indigenous knowledge and science (sometimes portrayed as alien and inimical to Africans). The situation is also expected to produce a sort of mental dualism and mental alternation between the opposing schemas: the primitive and the modern, art and science, the indigenous and the standard, or the Western and the African.

Historical dialectics, Western Futurism and Epistemological Exclusionism versus African knowledge system

Perhaps, the most appropriate place to begin a discussion on the futurism of the Western knowledge system to which the name science has been abrogated is Hegelian dialectics. G.W.F. Hegel is sometimes regarded as the peak of German idealism. What distinguishes Hegel's idealism from those of Fichte and Schelling is the dialectical schema of his philosophical system. The Hegelian system comprises the dynamics of the unfolding totality of an active reality (see Popkin and Stroll: 1993, 83-85, 133-134). A number of triads could be found in the Hegelian system. For instance, the Hegelian reality is made up of (1) the spirit (mind), which is the idea for itself; (2) nature, which is idea outside of itself, and (3) logic, which is the idea in itself. Each of the three is subdivided into three and each of the subdivisions is further divided into three. Hegel's triads culminate in a dialectical method.

The dialectical method of Hegel looks like an attempt at reconciling the problem of the 'one' and the 'many,' which had started from the Ancient Greek thinkers (Hegel 1975). In spite of the resemblance that the Hegelian method bears with the earlier thinkers, his philosophy builds a foundation upon which much of the social and intellectual systems of generations after Hegel came to be shaped. Hegel believes that reality is spiritual, and that spiritual reality is continually changing and advancing to the ultimate state, which he calls the Absolute Spirit. In the context, there is a sort of give-and-take synthesis between opposites consisting of the thesis and the antithesis. In the give-and-take unity of opposites, a new state is produced called the synthesis (Hegel, 1956). Hegel believes that this process is constantly and continuously ongoing in all spheres of existence and in the totality of existence. In Hegel's opinion, this constant conflict is teleological in nature; it pictures reality as constantly evolving towards the best. The implication of this is that in the dialectical context, the emerging synthesis is seen as superior to previous states.

Perhaps the most astounding application of Hegel's dialectics could be found in Marx's dialectical materialism. The Marxist dialectical materialism, only a materialistic adaptation of Hegel's historical dialectics, is the view that reality is matter and motion, which constantly evolves historically in accordance with the principles of constantly synthesising the opposing social and political states towards a perfect communist state. Every succeeding state is therefore an improvement over the preceding state. The influence of a combination of Hegelian dialectics and the contextualised

version of it by Karl Marx (Popkin and Stroll: 1993, 82-94) on social situations of the 21st century cannot be over emphasised. The underlying teleology of Hegelianism adapted by Marx seems to have conditioned and engineered scholarship and society in general towards a sort of belief that new ideas are better than the former. Motivations towards new inventions and discoveries in science, technology and arts are perhaps under the influence of looking forward to something better than the previous. The influence is more pronounced in the Western world. This could be identified as a sort of futurism; a belief that the present is an improvement on the previous and that the future or the yet to be discovered would be better than the present. There is therefore an unrestrained craving for new inventions without considering the impact of the new inventions on the existential condition of the people the new discoveries are meant to serve. Though Karl Marx is identified with socialism and communism, which the liberalists and the capitalists have identified as conservative, capitalism seems to owe its underlying creativity to the dialectic materialism of Karl Marx more than to the alleged competitive feature of the capitalist system.

Epistemology is often regarded as an aspect of philosophy relating to how to know, what to know and the criteria for knowing and accessing knowledge. It is usually held that there are two opposing schools of thought in epistemology: rationalism and empiricism, the latter sometimes called positivism (Hamlyn, 1970). However, the alleged opposing schools are together opposed to the sceptical school (Popkin, 1979, 244). Since philosophy itself is generic, it becomes possible to have the epistemology of other disciplines such as medicine, communication, language, religion, politics, biology and even agriculture. The controversies that are found in most other fields ensue from the epistemological positions of the scholars involved. Consequently, most controversies among scholars are applied epistemological issues (Olatunji, 2007, 1). The unnecessary demarcations between the perceiving subject and the object of perception in rationalism and empiricism and to some extent in scepticism have been vehemently criticised by the phenomenologists. Though the phenomenologist's solution to the demarcation has been argued to be fallacious, our immediate interest is not to join issues on that controversy. The controversy has helped at least to accept the possibility of exclusionism in Western epistemologies.

Consequent to epistemological exclusionism, there have been concerted efforts to differentiate between science and non-science. Normally, it is believed that the scientific statement is true, correct and knowledge *par excellence* (Aigbodioh, 1997, 57). Scholars think it is in the best interest of scholarship to make a clear demarcation between science and non-sciences. To this end, a number of criteria have been offered. It is not unusual to think that what distinguishes the scientific from the non-scientific is the procedures of observation, experimentation and generalisation. However, scholars have argued that abrogating such procedures to engagements in the fields of science alone are arbitrary and therefore a weak argument. These scholars consequently try to offer alternative explanations and criteria for demarcating between the scientific and the non-scientific. Using the list provided by Aigbodioh (1997, 57), the first is the popular acceptability criterion offered by Lakatos (see Oludare 2004, 48-58). Lakatos argues that a statement is scientific if many people agree seriously that it is true. Unfortunately, there are numerous beliefs and ideas which many people hold to be true but which are never considered to be scientific. For instance, the number of people who believe in the existence of God or ghosts has not raised the belief in God to the level of the sciences. Lakatos also offers the 'research programme' criterion. This criterion could be roughly stated as meaning that a statement is scientific if it is progressively applicable. For instance, on the basis of progressive applicability or instrumentalism, such concepts as the ether and the gene have been generally accepted to exist on the basis of their effects and uses rather than on the basis of any objective support.

Unfortunately, instrumentalism cannot be a reliable criterion for demarcating between the scientific and the non-scientific because it could be applied politically to exclude some and include others, as long as it works. This is a version of instrumentalism. The objective support criterion usually referred to as the verifiability criterion is also an alternative criterion. This criterion is on the basis that scientific research directly reports observations. Experience has shown however to the contrary that all statements and observations are theory-laden and value-laden. What the scientist describes are not things as they are out there, but how he or she thinks they are. What we call the scientific are no more than subjective explanations taken too seriously. Karl Popper also offers the falsifiability or refutability criterion. This implies that to be scientific is to be testable or verifiable. Many scholars have rejected this criterion on several bases (Aigbodioh, 1997, 63). For instance, Newton's, Kepler's and Galileo's theories are considered scientific because their alleged truths could be tested and verified (see Aigbodioh, 1997, 62-64). Unfortunately, Popper (1979, 16) himself observes that Newton's theory is found to contradict both Kepler's and Galileo's theories on the same issue. It should have been expected that if one is scientific, the other should be non-scientific, and if one is true, the other should be false. To date the two are still held to be scientific.

Kuhn (1970, 1-18 and 187-206) has also argued to the effect that the demarcation between science and other knowledge systems is very arbitrary because the mode by which adherents of one paradigm remain loyal to their paradigm even when it has been disproved, or change to another even when nothing so seriously defective has been

associated to the previous is not different from the manner in which people change parties or remain loyal to their parties in the political sphere. Kuhn's argument is that if science is no more than the politics of epistemic community then the demarcation between science and non-science is arbitrary.

In spite of the criticisms of Thomas Kuhn and a number of other scholars, many are still very committed to demarcating between the process, the content and even the ends of science and those of non-sciences; say culture, arts, social sciences. According to Sogolo (1993, 115); "it has to be granted that the language of discourse in traditional African culture in the matter of health and illness is different from that of orthodox medicine." Sometimes, the demarcation is done in a way that seems to portray that the two are irreconcilable, and that the validity of one implies the invalidity of the other as a science. Usually, the non-sciences are classified under various names and titles such as arts, crafts, traditional skills. In addition to demarcating between science and non-science, therefore, the exclusionist epistemology which forms the basis for the demarcation criteria also excludes African indigenous knowledge from the scheme of rational, systematic and scientific discourse. The demarcation often made between science and arts may not really be as obvious as scholars tend to portray. Science in a loose sense is believed to include engineering and technology, for instance. There would probably not be an invention of a car or mobile communication system gadgets without the art of design and shapes. Technology therefore is no more than modern art. This artistic aspect of modern science is often forgotten when making a boundary between art and science, and consequently between Western and the African.

Gough (2002, 1217–1237) accuses Western scholars of exclusionism, because they have labelled and classified other knowledge systems as non-formal, uninformed, and non-contemporary, and, consequently non-scientific. Du Toit (2005, 55–73) also notes that Westerners often see indigenous knowledge as the African equivalent of Western science, technology and rationality, with nothing but mere symbolic value to mark the new wave of renaissance in Africa. Unfortunately, African scholars are themselves not less exclusionists than their Western counterparts. They are equally quick at distinguishing between African indigenous knowledge and Western scientific knowledge. By implication, they have attributed the current and modern apex of knowledge to science and have conceded science to the West.

For instance, Mkabela (2006, v–viii) notes an ongoing debate which demands a methodological choice between conventional scientific methods and indigenous knowledge (centred) approaches when dealing with Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS). According to Castiano, (2005, v–vii) "most indigenous knowledge has been perceived in the near past, even among some intellectuals, as marginal and only suitable for traditional societies." Magoro & Masoga (2005, 414–428) conceptualise indigenous knowledge as a system concerned with many aspects that are important to local people and disseminated from generation to generation. Perhaps one of the clearest formulations of the African scholars' misconception of indigenous knowledge is Kolawole (2001, 13–15) and Kolawole (2005, 1427–1443) who argue that indigenous knowledge equals local or traditional knowledge peculiar to a particular culture or to a people in a particular locality.

While Western scholars tend to be future-centric and sometimes excessive in their progressive impulse, African scholars tend to be pro-primitive. They seem to defend primitivism in the name of the indigenous. Should African indigenous knowledge mean returning the past, or bringing back the past methods in their uncontaminated forms? Should other indigenous knowledge related concepts such as African renaissance and ubuntu be interpreted in the retro-centric manner?

Arguably, rather than merely reproducing the past in their original forms, should scholars of African indigenous knowledge not think of how, for instance, the concept of ubuntu could be employed to surmount some existential problems facing contemporary human society?

In a simple term, ubuntu as an aspect of African renaissance should hardly be anything like a return to the way things were done in the past. First, the past may not be suitable for the present. Time and tide have disposed of the past. In fact, even if there had been no colonial intervention or cultural imperialism, Africans on their own could still have abandoned the primitive cultures by now. Second, it may be impossible to return to the past. Even if it is possible to return to the past or to recall the ancient socio-cultural models, the alleged past is controversial. When in the past should be the appropriate spot to begin from or to return? Some of the historical ideas were socio-cultural devices of their times to deal with social problems based on the available level of knowledge. They were as scientific as they could be in their time. Applying them outside of the context that necessitated their existence is no more than holding on to the old manual typewriter in spite of better and advanced technologies. It would mean holding on to the relics of history rather than to their lessons and values. Rather than returning to the past or recalling the past as in some retrospectivist approach to renaissance, a reconstruction of the past might be more appropriate by keeping the underlying values.

What exactly does reconstructing the past mean? The influence of the past on the present is hardly ever in doubt, as is the influence of the present on the future. Past of the said influence are good and others are not. Reconstructing the past therefore would mean tracing the root of the bad influences and constructing the present in such a way that eliminates

the unwanted bad influences of the past or neutralises the effects of the said past. Consequently, if it is possible to return to the past, the first thing should be to clear the controversies and erect a good historically and intellectually reliable structure about the African past. The reconstructed past could consequently serve as the point of renaissance. Renaissance on the other hand should not one that ensures that Africa remains perpetually in the past while others look to the future.

The demarcationist approach that polarises Africa and the West regarding science and indigenous knowledge could be a mistaken opinion. The reason is that, though the invention of airplanes, gunpowder, warships or even of some mathematical methods may have come from Europe, America, Asia or Egypt, the scientific scheme itself is universal. It is not different from saying art is indigenously African or technology is indigenously Asian. The particular invention is only an application or practical manifestation of the scientific scheme. Science does not become European simply because Europe invents or discovers a thousand things while America discovers or develops only ten or none. There is also no scientific innovation or invention that was ever made universally. Most inventions were made by a single or a few individuals as indigenous knowledge, and consequently put into the positive use by people from every parts of the globe. It is neither unscientific nor opposed to science at any point.

The material contents or the relics of the primitive ideas, whether African or European, were devices to serve human needs within the historical contexts that produced them. They could only be relevant in modern times as histories and as take-off points. They are not relics for veneration and peaks of achievements. Perhaps, too, no new invention would ever have been made if scientists were to go about glorifying their previous achievements. It is conceivable that innovations would have been rare if scholars made sure that the original styles, methods and models of past achievements, discoveries and inventions are retained and unmodified either in the name of renaissance or indigenous knowledge in the manner some African scholars tend to advocate for Africa's past.

Conclusion

After a brief outline of samples of definitions of African indigenous knowledge, this paper resumes with samples of African scholars' understanding of African indigenous knowledge. It is discovered that many African scholars look to the past in order to understand the system of knowledge indigenous to Africa. An analysis of Western scholars reflects some sort of exaggerated futurism. In addition, some African scholars are of the opinion that to have an authentically African indigenous knowledge, the scope of the alleged indigenous knowledge must be distinguished from the realm of alleged Western sciences. In like manner, Western scholars have successfully excluded African indigenous knowledge and any other alternative for that matter from the corpus of scientific knowledge. Given this scenario, African indigenous knowledge is seemingly banished to the clandestine realm of the obsolete and the mediocre.

There is a saying in Yoruba language that *t'omode ba subu a maa wo iwaju, t'agba ba subu a maa wo 'bi 'to ti f'ese ko*. It literally means "when a child falls (has challenges), the child looks to the front, but when the elder falls (has challenges), he looks back to see the cause of his fall." In like manner of the Yoruba, many Africans see it as a social virtue or wisdom to look to the past for solutions to present situations; and childish or premature to look to the future for solutions for past, present and future challenges. It has not been of serious importance in this paper to judge the adequacy of the weltanschauung of looking backward for solution; it is obvious that one who does not know where he or she is coming from may not know where he or she is heading. It has also not been of any serious relevance to judge the adequacy of excessive futurism. It however confirms how and why the intellectual tradition in Africa seems to extol primitivism.

There is a need to replace the theoretical background of demarcationism and exclusionism. That is, the object-subject, and the 'we versus them' outlook of demarcationist epistemology associated with rationalism and empiricism need to be replaced with a spontaneous and integrative holism. Constructing such a theoretical ideal could perhaps require a separate work other than this. It is therefore committed to future research. However, the question "is primitivism indigenous to Africa?" is a valid one. If the question is valid, but the answer to the question is "no," then, it could be further asked: should primitivism not be replaced by a more viable alternative? If primitivism needs a replacement, is science Western? Can science not be African? Is it the concept of science that is Western or the method and content of its engagement? Is Western unbridled futurism and exclusionism a better alternative? Until these questions find answers, African indigenous knowledge may continue to promote primitivism or be lost for lack of identity.

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Information Literacy (IL) teaching and learning: a literature review

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The paper is largely based on review of existing literature on teaching and learning Information Literacy (IL), both online and in print. It reports on studies about the teaching and learning of IL in some institutions of higher learning. It also discusses lists of competencies, and descriptions of information literacy programmes and courses. In addition, the paper intends to compare literature on various IL undertakings in the developed countries to IL initiatives being undertaken in some developing countries, particularly, in some African Universities. The paper also discusses some challenges faced in the teaching and learning of IL in some institutions of higher learning. Some of these include technological issues, diverse groups, language and cultural barriers and time and lack of computers.

The paper has been able to unearth the dearth of studies on information literacy in Africa and concludes that information on IL is mostly Euro-centric; there is little happening in African countries, except for South Africa where there have been a number of initiatives. The paper has demonstrated that Information Literacy is being taken seriously as a module or course at some institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa and Malawi, although a lot more needs to be done in terms of facilities and equipment which are vital in inculcating IL skills in students.

Keywords: Information literacy, teaching and learning, teaching, literature review

1. Introduction

This paper reviews reports and studies that focus on the teaching and learning of information literacy (IL). It also discusses lists of competencies and descriptions of IL programmes and courses. The paper intends to compare literature on various IL undertakings in the developed countries to IL initiatives being undertaken in developing countries, particularly in some African universities. Information literacy models will also be compared and discussed.

The paper discusses the following: i) The concept of information literacy; ii) Information skills; iii) Benchmarking of IL; iv) Information literacy models; v) The *Seven Pillars of Information Literacy* model; vi) Integration of information literacy into the curriculum; vii) Teaching and learning of information literacy; viii) Topics covered in the module or course of information literacy or library orientation programme; and ix) The challenges of the teaching and learning of information literacy.

2. The concept of information literacy

Shapiro and Hughes (in Malliari and Nitsos, 2008: n.p) believe that in today's society, the effective and efficient utilisation and handling of the massive volumes of print and electronic material and the various audio-visual features presupposes the existence of trained and competent users. Shapiro and Hughes (in Malliari and Nitsos, 2008: n.p) note that by definition, a competent user is one who has developed a set of skills that go beyond the basics of how to use a computer and how to access sources of information, to skills that help him/her decode the nature of information and assess its scientific, social, cultural and philosophical value.

Thus, the American Library Association (ALA, 2007: 1) defines information literacy as: "A set of abilities which enable individuals to recognise when information is needed, and possessing the ability to locate, evaluate, and utilise the needed information." Living in the information era, these abilities have become imperative in virtually all life situations, and especially in the learning/educational environment.

Tertiary institutions are centres of learning and knowledge generation, meaning that students, academic staff, administrative staff, researchers and librarians work with information. Therefore, the ability to search, identify, locate, retrieve and use information independently is absolutely essential in the case of students who attend tertiary institutions to gain as much knowledge and information as possible in order to be able to function optimally in their chosen occupations.

According to the Chartered Institute of Library and Information Professionals (CILIP) (2006: n.p), IL is a part of knowledge or learning that is about acquiring a set of skills or competencies. An information literate individual cares about the quality of the answer to what he/she is investigating and is prepared to work to guarantee that quality. Barton (n.d: 1-2) would agree, saying that information literate students access, evaluate and use information from a variety of sources, communicate effectively, and reflect on the process as well as the product. Information Literacy is especially relevant in primary and secondary schools, institutions of higher learning, and in business and leisure (CILIP, 2006: n.p). The general

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lack of access to information sources experienced on the African continent, both for educational and leisure purposes, often results in information illiterate students who are ill-prepared for the rigours of information retrieval at tertiary level. For this reason, a deliberate programme designed to teach IL should be incorporated in all universities' curricula to help students interrogate and utilise information.

This author, based on his previous experience as a student assistant in the Department of Library and Information Science and the library at the University of Zululand and current position as a lecturer in the Department of Library and Information Science at Mzuzu University in Malawi, has observed that most undergraduate students do not possess the skills they need in order to effectively conduct their research and search for information. They rely heavily on their lecture notes and on library staff in their search for information despite having been taught and equipped with IL skills during their first year at the university. One must, therefore, ask: what and where is the problem, and why are students not performing as expected with regard to the application of IL?

2.1 Information skills – what are they?

Lock (2003: n.p) states that there are two ways of approaching or categorising information skills in institutions of higher learning. The first relates to the skills that students will need to put to use during their (study) tenure, and includes the students' ability to use a library and its resources in order to advance their studies; the ability to perform literature searches to whatever depth and complexity is required for a particular curriculum or discipline area; and the ability to demonstrate this to the satisfaction of tutors and assessors by means of citations and references when using information. This approach supports the development of a competent student, one who is able to function effectively as part of the academic community.

The second category, according to Lock (2003: n.p), is about the level or degree to which students are prepared to participate in whatever activity they may choose upon leaving higher education. This requires an awareness and understanding of the way in which information is produced and some practical ideas on how information is acquired, managed, disseminated and exploited, particularly with knowledge on how professional groups use information in the workplace, in business, and in the world of culture and the arts. It also includes the critical appraisal of the content and validity of information (Lock, 2003: n.p). In order to know whether a student has mastered IL, some standards have to be made with which to measure the student. This is also known as benchmarking.

2.2 Benchmarking information literacy in institutions of higher learning

According to De Jager and Nassimbeni (2002:3), benchmarking is a strategic assessment tool that is commonly practised in the business sector environment and essentially consists of comparing best practices with one's own practice in order to ensure continuous improvement. The purpose of benchmarking, as noted by Meade (in De Jager and Nassimbeni, 2002:3), is to improve the current situation in order to attain excellence, and an important product of such an initiative is: "The discovery of innovative approaches [...] as enhancement of current practices is rarely sufficient to ensure future excellence." Information literacy has been stressed as imperative in institutions of higher learning, especially with the publication of "Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education" by the Association of College and Research Libraries" (ACRL) in 1999. These are considered to be the most acceptable standards by which to measure information competencies in higher education (HE) institutions worldwide. The Council of Australian University Librarians (CAUL, 2001:4) is also an example of an organisation that provides information literacy standards as a framework for embedding information literacy in the design and teaching of educational programs and for assessing the information literate individual.

These standards are equally useful to students because they provide a framework for their interaction with information in the academic environment. They also help the students develop their awareness of the need for a meta-cognitive approach to learning, making them conscious of the explicit actions required when recognizing their needs and gathering, analysing and using information (CAUL, 2001:4). The Seven Pillars of Information Literacy model describes outcomes and provides examples on how to assess students' progress towards information literacy. The outcomes serve as guidelines for academics and librarians in developing local methods for measuring students' learning.

There are different ways of assessing the outcomes, and these include both higher order and lower order thinking skills. These assessment outcomes are based on Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives, which, according to Haberle (in De Jager and Nassimbeni, 2002:3), requires students to first master the cognitive skills of the lower levels of each knowledge domain before they can master the higher levels. Azmi (n.d: 149) notes that because information literacy augments students' competencies with respect to evaluating, managing and using information, it is now considered by several regional and discipline-based accreditation associations to be a very important competency of university students. These benchmarks or standards are explained as part of information literacy models, of which several are in use today.

2.3 Information Literacy Models

There are several information literacy models that have been propagated by different authors, theorists and academics. Examples of such models include:

2.3.1 *The Seven Pillars of Information Literacy (SCONUL, 1999)*

The Seven Pillars of Information Literacy Model was developed by the SCONUL advisory committee on information literacy in 1999. The model has seven competence levels that include the ability to recognise a need for information; the ability to distinguish the way in which the information gap may be addressed; the ability to construct strategies for locating information; the ability to locate and access information; the ability to compare and evaluate information obtained from different sources; the ability to organise, apply and communicate information to others in ways appropriate to the situation; and the ability to synthesise and build upon existing information, contributing to the creation of new knowledge (SCONUL, 1999:6).

2.3.2 *The Big6 Skills (Eisenberg and Bob Berkowitz, 1990)*

According to MacDonald and Darrow (2003:1), the Big6 Skills Model is one of the most well known models in the field and is often taught to students as a guide for their research. It is a process model that outlines how people of all ages solve an information problem. It has six stages that students follow in their information problem-solving process, namely task definition, information seeking strategies, location and access, use of information synthesis, and evaluation (Eisenberg and Berkowitz, 1990: n.p).

2.3.3 *Information Search Process (Kuhlthau, 1993)*

Another well-known model is the Information Search Process by Kuhlthau (1993). This model demonstrates how users approach the research process and how users' confidence increases at each stage. The model has seven stages, which include initiation, selection, pre-focus exploration, formulation, collection, presentation and assessment (Kuhlthau, 1993:1-3).

2.3.4 *Pathways to Knowledge (Pappas and Tepe, 2002)*

The Information Inquiry Model by Pappas and Tepe delineates pathways to knowledge and is meant to encourage students to continuously explore and reassess information as they go about their information seeking or retrieval processes. The model consists of six steps, namely appreciation and enjoyment, pre-search, search, interpretation, communication and evaluation.

The above mentioned information literacy models will be used in conjunction with other well known information seeking processes, namely Ellis's Model of Information Seeking Behaviour, Dervin's Sense Making Theory, and Belkin's Anomalous State of Knowledge (ASK) theory, in order to look at IL teaching and learning. The Seven Pillars of Information Literacy (as proposed by the Sconul committee on Information Literacy in 1999) has been selected in this paper as the focus or core model because it is closer to what students experience in reality in their daily information processes. It will therefore be used to frame the discussion, and its relevance to the other models will also be demonstrated.

2.3.5 *Research Process Model (Stripling and Pitts, 1988)*

Stripling and Pitts' Research Process Model (1988) guides students through the stages of creating a research paper. It has ten steps, starting from choosing a research topic and ending with the presentation of the final topic.

2.3.6 *The Seven Pillars of Information Literacy*

The Seven Pillars of Information Literacy Model is presented in Figure 1. Other information literacy models' discussions are based on this model. Each skill is discussed and compared with some of the stages in other models. Examples of the kinds of specific activities or competences that illustrate how each skill is applied are also provided.

2.3.6.1 *The ability to recognise a need for information*

At this (first) stage, the user, in this case a student, is like a blank slate, with no clear knowledge of his or her information needs. Mostert (2004:124) describes 'need' as the perception that something is lacking. It can also be seen as something that a human being requires in order to function effectively. According to Belkin (in Kituyi-Kwake 2007:82), an information need is present when a gap, uncertainty or deficiency in a person's cognitive state is recognised. Belkin (in Kituyi-Kwake 2007:82) notes that this deficiency prevents a person from making sense of the surrounding world, and to this end it is described as an "anomalous state of knowledge" (ASK), in other words a gap in one's ability to make sense of a situation.

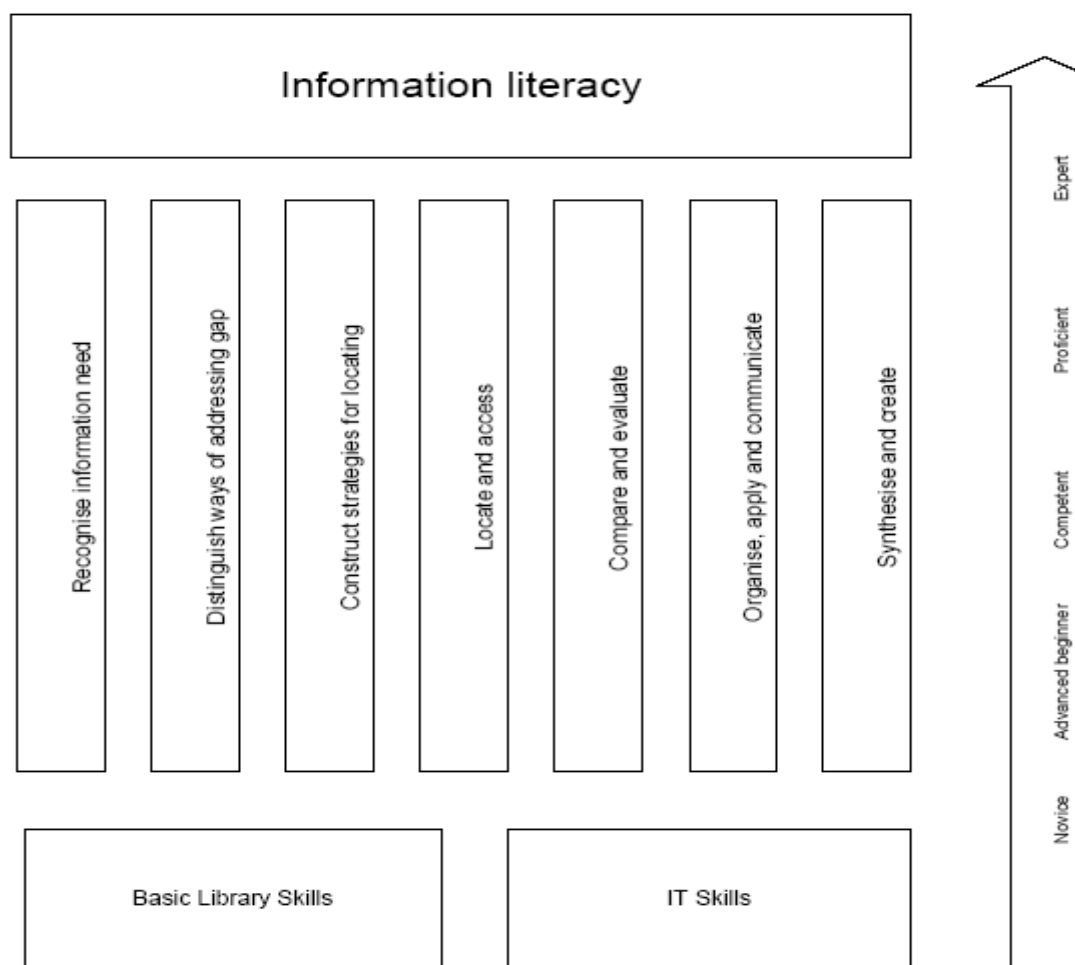


Figure 1 Information Skills model (Sourced from SCONUL position paper, 2003)

MacDonald and Darrow (2003:2) compare this stage to 'task definition' in the Big6 Skills, and 'initiation and selection' in Kuhlthau's Information Seeking Process. In task definition in the Big6 Skills Model, a student determines exactly what the problem is and determines the specific information needs related to the problem. In other words, the stage asks what information is needed in order to solve the problem at hand. This is similar to 'task initiation and selection' in Kuhlthau's Information Seeking Process Model in which an individual first becomes aware of the lack of the knowledge necessary to accomplish an assignment, which is followed by feelings of uncertainty and apprehension. At this stage, the task is to recognise a need for information. Thoughts are vague, and there is ambiguous centring on the general problem.

According to Kuhlthau (1993), a person is driven to search for information in order to address a problem as perceived by him or her. A student may therefore discuss the problem at hand with others, including peers and experts, and/or browse different sources to identify a research topic or other information need. This in turn leads the student to explore general information resources to increase their familiarity with the topic by brainstorming, discussing the problem with others, thinking about possible topics, and by tolerating uncertainty. The student then selects the topic for research. Thoughts at this stage centre on weighing topics that would best suit his or her research interests and project requirements based on the information and time available. The topic with the greatest apparent potential for success ultimately gets selected.

When selection is delayed or postponed, feelings of anxiety and confusion are likely to intensify until a choice is made. Feelings of uncertainty give way to a brief sense of elation upon selection. Actions may involve searching for information by consulting with informal mediators and making preliminary searches of the library and other sources. As already mentioned, strategies would include discussing possible topics with peers or experts and using different sources to overview possible topics. In Strippling and Pitts' Research Process Model (1988: n.p), also known as REACTS, choosing a

broad topic and getting an overview of the topic is known as recalling, which entails fact-finding and reporting on the information.

This is followed by narrowing the topic and developing a statement of purpose, which means posing questions (e.g. whether the chosen topic will meet the users' research interests) and finding answers to such questions. It also entails exploring various forms of literature and reading, viewing and listening.

In their model, Pappas and Tepe (2002:1-2) refer to this stage as 'appreciation and enjoyment.' Appreciation and enjoyment are about 'raising' the information need. The authors argue that appreciation fosters curiosity and imagination, which in turn lead to discovery in an information seeking activity. As students go through the information seeking stages by viewing, listening, reading and sensing, their appreciation also develops and matures.

The pre-focus exploration stage in Kuhlthau's Information Search Process Model also fits in this first stage of the Seven Pillars Model. The student investigates information in order to find a focus point or she would, therefore, learn more about the general topic and identify several possible focus areas while still being unable to express the exact information that is needed. The student would therefore feel confused, doubtful, uncertain and sometimes threatened, and consequently take action by reading to gain more information and by taking notes and making bibliographic citations. Strategies that an information seeker or student would employ include summarising the notes, listing possible foci of the topic, and combining several themes to form one focus. The student then proceeds to the next stage, which is finding ways in which the information gap can be addressed.

2.3.6.2 The ability to distinguish ways in which the information 'gap' may be addressed

The second step of the information process in the Seven Pillars of Information Literacy Model entails being knowledgeable about both print and non-print information resources, selecting the information resources that would go towards accomplishing the research task, and understanding issues that affect access to information sources (Sconul, 1999:7).

Baker (2005:1-2) compares this stage to: 'focus formulation' in Kuhlthau's Information Search Process Model; 'formulating questions to guide research and plan for research production' in Pitts and Strippling's Research Process Model; and the 'pre-search stage' in the Pathways to Knowledge Model of Pappas and Tepe. Kuhlthau (1993:1-2) notes that the exploration or investigation stage in her model is the most difficult stage for users and the most misunderstood by intermediaries. Feelings of confusion, uncertainty and doubt frequently increase during this stage. The task is to investigate information relating to the general topic in order to extend one's personal understanding. Thoughts are on becoming sufficiently informed about the topic to form a focus or a personal point of view. An inability to state exactly what information is needed makes communication awkward between the user or student and the system. Actions include locating information relevant to the general topic, reading, and relating new information to what is already known. Formulation means focusing more on a specific topic within a topic. Feelings of uncertainty diminish and confidence begins to grow. The task is to develop a focus area based on the information encountered during exploration. Thoughts become clearer as a more focused and articulated concept of the topic is formed. Baker (2005:5) explains that the 'formulating questions to guide research and plan for the research production' stage of the Research Process Model, involves examining and organising (analysing) information, and asking whether the questions lay a good foundation for the research task and whether the research plan is feasible. The student then organises the information to fit the research task at hand.

In their model, Pappas and Tepe (2002:2) explain that the pre-search stage enables the users to make a connection between their topic and the knowledge that they already have in order to explore the relationships between subtopics. This requires students to brainstorm and ask what they know about their topic and what they want to know.

2.3.6.3 The ability to construct strategies for locating information

The third step in the Seven Pillars of Information Literacy Model implies articulating information needs to match the available information sources, developing a systematic method appropriate for the information needs, and understanding the principles of the construction and generation of databases. Baker (2005:1-2) compares this stage to 'information seeking strategies' in the Big6 Skills Model and 'search' in the Pathways to Knowledge Model. In order for a student to extract ideas or the right amount of information during the 'information seeking strategy', the student would need to consult a range of literature, such as journal articles, Internet sources and books on the subject. This would mean selecting a wide range of information sources and prioritising the best of all the possibilities. This is also accomplished through information seeking and requires the student to assess the value of various types of print and electronic sources, such as CD-ROMS, databases, browsing the Online Public Access Catalogue (OPAC), and so on.

The sources found would give the student an idea on how to narrow his/her broad area of interest. Ellis (in Choo, Detlor and Turnbull, 2003: n.p) and Wilson (1999:6) call this 'chaining and browsing.' Chaining can either be forward or

backward. Backward chaining occurs when pointers or references from an initial source are followed; scientists and researchers follow this routine in their information seeking processes. Forward chaining, on the other hand, identifies and follows up on other sources that refer to an initial source or document and is less commonly used. This is where the individual simplifies browsing by looking through the table of contents, lists of titles, subject headings, names of organisations or persons, abstracts and summaries, and so on. Browsing takes place when related information has been grouped together according to subject affinity, when the user views displays at an exhibition, when he or she scans a book on a shelf, etc (Ellis in Choo, Detlor and Turnbull : 2003: n.p). Having accomplished this activity, the student moves on to the next activity.

2.3.6.4 The ability to locate and access information.

The fourth stage of the Seven Pillars of Information Literacy Model requires the student or information user to be able to develop an appropriate searching technique, such as the use of Boolean operators, communication and information technologies, appropriate indexing and abstracting services, citations, indexes and databases, and current awareness methods to keep up to date. To this end, the models that fit here include the Big6 Skills' 'location and access', 'information location' in Kuhlthau's Information Search Process, 'find, analyse and evaluate resources' in the Pitts and Stripling's Research Process Model and 'search' in the Pathways to Knowledge Model.

Eisenberg and Berkowitz (1990:n.p) refer to this stage as 'locating and accessing information.' This is concerned with the student selecting the most appropriate investigative methods by developing a research plan and identifying keywords, synonyms and related terms for the required information. The student thereafter constructs a search strategy using appropriate commands for the information access tool selected, such as the use of Boolean operators ("AND", "OR" and "NOT"), truncation, and proximity operators for databases or search engines, and/or the use of OPAC, indexes and abstracts. The student goes on to retrieve information in a variety of formats using various information access tools, classification schemes and other systems, such as call number systems or indexes, to locate information resources within a library.

Kuhlthau (1993:2-3), on the other hand, refers to this as 'collection'. This is when interaction between the user and the system functions most effectively and efficiently. At this point, the task involves gathering relevant information on the focus topic. The student would have a clearer sense of direction and can specify the need for particular information. Thoughts are on searching for information to support the focus area, defining and/or extending the focus area through information, gathering pertinent information, and organising information in notes. At this point, feelings of confidence may grow considerably as uncertainty subsides and interest in the project intensifies. Actions focus on using the library and other resources to collect significant information, and taking detailed notes with bibliographic references. Strategies that are used include using keywords to search for significant information; comprehensively searching various types of materials, such as references, periodicals and non-fiction; using indexes; and requesting assistance from the librarian. This stage is equivalent to 'find, analyse and evaluate resources' in the Research Process Model in which students ask themselves whether the sources found are usable and adequate.

In the search stage of the Pathways to Knowledge Model, Pappas and Tepe (2002:3) explain that users identify appropriate information providers such as libraries, records and archive centres, museums and so on; select information resources and tools such as indexes, people, the Internet, the media and references resources; and then plan and implement a search strategy to find information relevant to their research question or information need. This they can accomplish by scanning, interviewing and confirming information sources and recording information to determine the relevance of the information, and by exploring and browsing widely. Ellis (in Choo, Detlor and Turnbull: 2003: n.p) refers to this as 'extracting', which is an activity of systematically working through a particular source or sources in order to identify materials of interest. This is achieved by directly consulting the source(s) or by indirectly looking through bibliographies, indexes or online databases.

2.3.6.5 The ability to compare and evaluate information obtained from different sources

The fifth stage of the Seven Pillars of Information Literacy Model signifies that students should be aware of bias and authority issues, in other words the peer review process of scholarly publishing and appropriate extraction of information matching the information need. This is compared to 'evaluation' in the Big6 Skills Model, 'search closure' in Kuhlthau's Information Search Process, 'evaluating evidence/taking notes and compiling a bibliography' in the Research Process Model, and 'interpretation' in the Pathways to Knowledge Model.

Eisenberg and Berkowitz (1990: n.p) explain that the student assesses the quantity, quality and relevance of the search results to determine whether alternative information access tools or investigative methods should be utilised, identifies the gaps in the information retrieved, and determines if the search strategy should be revised. The student repeats the search using the revised strategy when necessary, summarises the main ideas extracted from the information gathered,

and examines and compares information from various sources to evaluate the information's reliability, validity, accuracy, authority, timeliness and point of view. The student should be able to recognise the cultural, physical, or other contexts within which the information was created and should understand the impact of context when interpreting information. In 'search closure', Kuhlthau (1993:3) asserts that the task is to wrap up the search for information. A student's thoughts are immersed in identifying whether this would increase redundancy and exhaust all resources.

At this stage, the student could feel a sense of relief, satisfaction, or disappointment. The student rechecks sources for information that might have gone unnoticed from the outset and confirms information and bibliographic citations relevant to the focus area and research questions. Strategies would include returning to the library to sum up the search and keeping the necessary books while writing to recheck information. Baker (2005:5) explains that 'evaluating evidence or taking notes and compiling a bibliography' in the Research Process Model involves judging information on the basis of authority, significance, bias and other factors.

Ellis's model of information seeking behaviour refers to this as 'differentiating' (Ellis in Choo, Detlor and Turnball: 2003: n.p). This means that the student filters and selects from among the sources scanned by noticing differences between the nature and quality of the information offered. Priority of sources and types of sources can be made according to three main criteria, namely substantive topic, approach or perspective, and level, quality, or type of treatment. The differentiating process is likely to depend on the individual's prior experiences with the sources, word of mouth recommendations from personal contacts, or reviews in published sources.

2.3.6.6 The ability to organise, apply and communicate information to others in ways appropriate to the situation

This stage calls for students or researchers to cite bibliographic references in their academic works, construct a personal bibliographic system, apply information to the problem at hand, communicate information effectively using the appropriate medium, and to understand issues pertaining to copyright and plagiarism (SCONUL, 1999:6). This is similar to 'information use' in the Big6 Skills Model and 'communication' in the Pathways to Knowledge Model. According to Pappas and Tepe (2002:3), the communication stage allows students to organise, apply, and present new knowledge that is applicable to their research questions or information needs. In applying information, students choose an appropriate communication format and respect intellectual property. In sharing knowledge, they compose, design, edit, revise and use the most effective medium (e.g. video, report, animation, etc.) and convey the information.

In communicating information to others, the student should understand cultural, ethical, legal, and socio-economic issues surrounding information and identify and articulate issues that relate to privacy. In addition, the student needs to note security in both the print and electronic environments, identify and articulate issues in relation to free versus fee-based access to information, identify and discuss issues in relation to censorship and freedom of speech, and demonstrate an understanding of intellectual property, copyright and the fair use of copyrighted materials. To avoid issues of plagiarism, the student should acknowledge the use of information sources by selecting an appropriate citation style in project reports and theses.

2.3.6.7 The ability to synthesise and build upon existing information, contributing to the creation of new knowledge

'Synthesis' in the Big6 Skills Model by Eisenberg and Berkowitz, 'presentation' in Information Search Process by Kuhlthau, and 'establish conclusions or organise information in outline and create and present final product' in the Research Process Model by Pitts and Stripling compare favourably to the seventh stage of Seven Pillars Model.

According to Eisenberg and Berkowitz (1990: n.p), synthesising information means that the student brings information together and relates what he or she has learned to what he/she already knows. The student chooses a communication medium and format that best supports the purposes of the product and the intended audience. This entails writing a draft that links various segments of information into a coherent whole and revising the draft a number of times to improve understanding before submitting it. In Kuhlthau's (1993: n.p) model, this stage falls under presentation. The task is to complete the search and to accomplish the assignment. A sense of relief is common, with satisfaction if the search has gone well and disappointment if it has not. Thoughts centre on culminating the search with a personalised understanding of selected aspects of the topic under study. Finally, the student has to combine concepts into potentially useful primary statements with supporting evidence and integrate the prior and new information, including words and ideas, in a manner that supports the purposes of the project.

In establishing conclusions and organising information in an outline, Pitts and Stripling (Stripling and Pitts, 1988: n.p) explain that the student or researcher draws conclusions by developing a personal perspective based on the obtained information. The outline should logically arrange conclusions and evidence. In creating and presenting the final product, Pitts and Stripling (Stripling and Pitts, 1988: n.p) are of the view that this should reflect on whether the paper is satisfactory.

The above competencies can be inculcated in students by teaching them in formal classes in their respective subjects. If the module or course of information literacy is to be taught in formal classes and marked, it has to be embedded into the curriculum of the teaching department.

The teaching of Information Literacy in Institutions of higher learning with special reference to South African universities: case studies.

Schaffner, Stebbins, and Wyman (in Allen, 2000: n.p) suggest that in order to improve active undergraduate education, resource-based learning should be the standard model of learning on university campuses. It also incorporates undergraduate research, service learning, inquiry learning, problem-based learning, and evidence-based learning. Additionally, it fosters the achievement of information literacy competencies and results in tangible outcomes or accomplishments, e.g. in the case of a solution to a community problem. Dazkiw and Forsyth (2003:3) present an example of resource-based learning at La Trobe University in Canada, where information literacy as a subject for the Bachelor of Nursing degree was published and presented online in WebCT modules and delivered as a set of lectures. Formal lectures were improved with standard tutorials, and workshops.

There are several information literacy initiatives in South Africa. One such initiative, the most prominent in fact, is the Information Literacy (INFOLIT) project, established in 1995. According to Underwood (2002:5), the primary objectives of INFOLIT (as of 1995) are to promote the concept, value and importance of information literacy, and to launch a series of pilot projects, explore and establish means of spreading information literacy education in the Western Cape region. The tangible outcomes of the INFOLIT project have been the recognition of the importance of IL at the University of Stellenbosch, University of Cape Town, Peninsula Technikon, Cape Technikon and the University of the Western Cape. The INFOLIT project also culminated in sponsoring the development of a web-based IL course. The site is meant to help users find, evaluate, use and communicate information. It is available at all the tertiary institutions in the Western Cape Province (Underwood, 2002:7). Underwood (2002:8) reports that the INFOLIT project also led to the establishment of a Centre for Information Literacy at the University of Cape Town. The members of staff at the centre are responsible for working with the academic staff of all the university's faculties in order to develop strategies for the integration of IL within the faculties' curricula. A series of discipline-based workshops on web-searching were developed using a template. The workshops were delivered on request to academic and library staff and students at each of the five institutions in the Cape region (Underwood, 2002:8).

According to De Jager, Nassimbeni and Underwood (2007:143), most institutions of higher learning offer library orientation or training that includes the use of the OPAC, electronic databases, citations and referencing. These authors also note that there is growing evidence of a greater number of IL modules being embedded in various curricula. While most of the courses are still generic stand-alone courses, others are credit bearing. Most institutions have a librarian whose primary responsibility is IL education, very often supported by subject librarians who offer training in their specific fields or disciplines. Some of the training is delivered in classrooms or computer laboratories, while other forms of training are offered virtually through platforms such as Web-CT. A training librarian made the point, however, that at her institution they were unable to offer an online course because many of their students come "from rural areas, farms and townships where there are no libraries and computers" (De Jager, Nassimbeni and Underwood (2007: 143).

The former Rand Afrikaans University launched a multimodal approach to teaching and learning in 2003. The multimodal approach was aimed at optimisation, learning and assessment, and has been defined as the use of different media or modes of delivery of teaching. The different media and technologies used in this integrated, multimodal learning environment include lectures, support from tutors, paper-based learning guides, interactive CDs, textbooks, videos, video-conferencing, and the web (electronic classes based on WebCT software offered to students via the Edulink virtual learning environment portal) [Molepo and van Vuuren, 2005:144].

According to Kibirige (2005:131), the learning and teaching processes at Monash University, South Africa, involve, in some instances, customised classes for groups of students for search assistance related to a specific assignment. Such a session covers the Voyager catalogues as well as reference works, search strategies and online databases relevant to an essay topic. Through liaisons between the library and the Center for Learning and Teaching, some lecturers attend information literacy workshops taught to subject groups on an *ad hoc* basis. Other initiatives include curriculum integrated sessions, where there is one formally scheduled session on the academic timetable – a two-hour class on 'Doing research on the Internet' as part of a first year course in contemporary studies. Students complete an assignment for credit towards their semester mark, and develop the skills that are necessary for effective Internet research by completing specific exercises. This model could be extended to other course units (Kibirige, 2005:131).

Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs (2008:52), in their study on "*Teaching and learning of Information Literacy in some selected institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal province, South Africa and Malawi*", established that IL is offered and taught

as a module or course by the Departments of Library and Information Science at the University of Zululand (Unizul) and Mzuzu University (Mzuni), where it is embedded in the departments' curricula. While it is not formally offered by the Durban University of Technology (DUT), it forms part of the library orientation programme. Both Unizul and Mzuni also offer it as part of the library orientation programme, but it is not compulsory to attend.

Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs (ibid) further found that the methods of designing the formal courses differ in the two institutions that offer it. Whereas the best practice for the design and review of the curriculum is through the involvement of various stakeholders, such as librarians, administrators, lecturers and curriculum designers, this is not always the case. In the case of Mzuni, the LIS Department hosts a workshop where participants, mainly lecturers from the LIS Department and librarians from across and outside the country, deliberate on and design a curriculum that is acceptable to all parties. This is reviewed on an annual basis. At Unizul, however, the course is designed and reviewed periodically by the lecturer concerned in consultation with the Head of the LIS Department. In terms of how the formal courses are offered, the study established that it was mostly by way of lectures in class, group discussions, and hands-on use in the library (browsing and using the Open Access Public Catalogue and other library resources). The informal library orientation programmes took the form of a theoretical introduction to the library, a walkabout in the library to familiarise students with the whereabouts of the information sources, and a one hour practical hands-on introduction to the OPAC. Attendance of the orientation programmes is not compulsory and skills learned are not tested or credited to the student. This method corresponds with one at the Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China where according to Li, Leung and Tam (2007: 534), the reference librarians at the University Library System (ULS) conduct the user education or information literacy instruction through the face to face classroom instruction.

Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs (2008: 117) in their study, ascertained that common topics in the two institutions include sources of information, searching and retrieval tools, the use of I-Link OPAC, the use of the Internet and electronic sources such as databases, evaluating and manipulating information in a usable form, arrangement of information resources in the library, communicating information, and citing and referencing academic works. Modes of delivery mainly consisted of lectures, group discussions and practicals in the computer laboratory, and both theory and practical modes in the library.

Several problems in the teaching and learning of information literacy are pinpointed here and were discussed in Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs' (2009) paper. These include technological issues, diverse groups, language and cultural barriers, and lack of time and resources such as computers.

Insufficient computer resources and slow Internet connections make the efficient teaching of information literacy very difficult. The problem of slow connectivity affects the time frame in which a topic could be taught and its completion (Dazkiw and Forsyth (2003:7). To compound the problem, some students do not have any computing skills.

This view concurs with Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs (2009:53) that some topics, such as the use of the OPAC, databases, and search engines, require the use of computers and the Internet. Therefore students need to be computer literate. The study established that the inability to operate computers sufficiently slowed down teaching during practical sessions and was particularly frustrating to the library staff since they only had one hour to teach students all that they needed to know about the library and how to search for information. This often resulted in sessions being virtually fruitless as tasks could not be completed or practised. Erratic network connections due to viruses and power disruptions at both the University of Zululand and Mzuzu University were other common problems. Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs (2008:125) in their study viewed 2008's load shedding as a crisis in South Africa that was beyond the affected universities' control; it is also a national and regional crisis that generally afflicts most of the countries in the Southern African region. Power blackouts tend to disrupt the teaching and learning of IL because classes are based on the use of electronic equipment, e.g. computers, overhead projectors and the Internet. Once power goes out, the computers' network server is disrupted and classes have to be dismissed.

Another problem, as highlighted by Winfred and Manning (in Selematsela, 2005:30), is that the student population in South Africa is very diverse and teachers are responsible for classrooms that represent students of different racial and ethnic groups, religions, languages, backgrounds, ages and learning styles and computer skills. As such, students enter the university with extreme polarity in their skills levels, thereby making it difficult for academic and library staff to pitch information literacy sessions at the same level (Moore and Abson in Selematsela, 2005:30). Winfield and Manning (in Selematsela, 2005:30) note that diversity in the case of students can be classified according to intergroup or individual differences. Intergroup differences are more pronounced in socio-economic levels; racial, ethnic and language groups; and physical ability. Within the inter-group differences and within each learner group, there are individual differences in learning rates, attitudes and motivational rates, which have a bearing on the achievement outcomes that academic and library staff must accommodate.

Yet another problem identified by Selematsela (2005:31) is that most learners that study in South African universities come from Southern African Developing Countries (SADC) and beyond and also include local learners whose mother tongue is not English. Most of these learners use English as a second language. This has some implications on their learning. Conteh (in Selematsela, 2005:31) asserts that the inclusion of learners from diverse language and cultural backgrounds in the same information literacy instruction session becomes problematic in the teaching of information literacy and increases the risk of misunderstanding. Students from disadvantaged backgrounds have unique obstacles that they have to overcome in order to be able to independently use library and information resources. Issues such as communication, learning styles and students' previous experiences should be taken into account by the lecturers and instructors. In addition to language barriers, there are also cultural barriers, which include students' reluctance to ask for help and their shyness and respect of authority.

Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs (2009:53), in their study at UniZul and the DUT in KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa and Mzuni in Malawi, found that time plays a very important role in the teaching of IL. The shorter the time selected for teaching, the more likely it is that the teaching would be ineffective. If, on the other hand, the teaching period is longer, there is a higher likelihood that students would grasp the topics under discussion. All the staff members interviewed cited lack of time as a common problem. For the library orientation programmes, only one-hour slots per student group were allocated, and even departmental staff that had a whole term to teach IL cited these time slots as inadequate, especially in terms of practical work.

The teaching of IL also requires a setting where there are computers for students' practicals. This contributes to a smooth teaching and learning environment. A shortage of equipment and/or venues means limited access to computers, and therefore fewer practicals. Chipeta, Mostert and Jacobs (2009: 53) found this to be a perennial problem at Unizul, DUT and Mzuni, especially in their libraries which require the equipment onsite for practical orientation. The staff teaching the course experienced the same problem, having to make use of computer laboratories that were mostly double-booked with other courses (Unizul) or always used by computer science students, not leaving much room for any other classes (Mzuni). The author observed that students often simply did not pitch up for classes because they knew about these problems.

2.4 Conclusion

The study has been able to unearth the dearth of studies on information literacy in Africa. This is supported by the fact information on IL is mostly Euro-centric, there is little happening in African countries, except for South Africa in which there have been a number of initiatives.

The paper has demonstrated that Information Literacy is being taken seriously as a module or course at some institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa and Malawi, although a lot more needs to be done in terms of facilities and equipment which are vital in inculcating IL skills in students. If IL instructors are to teach effectively, they have to be given the necessary support in terms of tools, otherwise they may end up with students who do not know how to independently search, identify, locate and use information. All in all, institutions of higher learning should incorporate IL courses in their curricula and it should be made mandatory to teach students such a course.

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The research trends of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences Research at the University of Zululand, 1994 - 2008

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The Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences departments play a fundamental role in university education and in promoting the vision and mission of the University of Zululand. This paper explores definitions of Humanities and the Social Sciences, and the terms 'research' and 'research output', and examines the status and challenges of research management at the University of Zululand to evaluate research in the cited departments. A bibliometric method was used to analyse the trends and challenges of Humanities and Social Sciences research by using research data reflecting on ongoing and completed Arts, Humanities and Social Science research publications submitted by staff and students from 1994 – 2008 to the university's Research Office. Data was analysed by categorising research output according to overall research publication by department, publication in accredited (SAPSE) journals by each department, author productivity, and research output by categories. Pearson's correlation analysis was applied to test whether there was any correlation between registered research projects and research publications. Results indicate that strong AH&SS research engagement and publication exist at the university. Most research output was in the form of journal articles and conference papers. There was also growing postgraduate research output in the form of Masters and Doctoral dissertations. AH&SS research is generally multidisciplinary in nature. We noted that the system for capturing completed Masters and Doctoral research reports at the university is inadequate. The paper raises other issues that are important for AH&SS research and development.

Keywords: Research, research trends, humanities, social sciences, arts, humanities and social sciences, informetrics, University of Zululand

Introduction

The Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences and their similarities and differences are inherently easy to confuse. The Arts and Humanities are academic disciplines that focus on the human condition. They are distinct from the Social Sciences because of the research methods used (analytical, critical and/or speculative.). Examples of these disciplines include Ancient and Modern Languages, Literature, History, Philosophy, Religion, and the Visual and Performing Arts. Scholars working in the field of the Humanities are sometimes referred to as "humanists". Kuper and Kuper (1985) define the Social Sciences as: "The fields of scientific knowledge and academic scholarship that study social groups and, more generally, human society." Contemporary social science covers a much wider field of subjects such as Philosophy, History, Demography, Anthropology, Linguistics, Social Work, Sociology, Political Sciences, Psychology, Media Studies and Cultural Studies, and Library and Information Sciences (LIS); scholars working in these disciplines are commonly referred to as "social scientists". The institutionalisation of the disciplines related to the Social Sciences only occurred in the last millennium. Although the origin of modern science has deep roots in the Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences, it has taken many years and a lot of convincing to get the orthodox academic community, who only recognised the Applied and Natural Sciences as 'sciences', to admit modern Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences into the field or family of 'science'.

Research output, how it is measured, and what measurement indicators and tools are acceptable, is still highly debated by members of the scholarly community. Research output is defined as the "textual output where research is understood as original [...] systematic investigation undertaken in order to gain new knowledge and understanding"¹. With respect to the measurement of research output, there are those who are in favour of qualitative measures of research (e.g. Gorman, 2000; Calvert and Gorman, 2002) and strong proponents of peer review as a measure of research quality (e.g. Harnad, 1995). Similarly, there are those who favour the quantitative measurement of research impact using indicators such as citation analysis and the journal impact factor (e.g. Garfield, 1971, 1972, 1994, and 1998). For example, when defending the qualitative measures of journal quality as opposed to quantitative measures based on citedness or the impact factor, Calvert and Gorman have argued that: "The fact that paper x is cited y times is not an indicator of quality, but rather that it is cited – it is available, it is in the journal held by many libraries, the author (or publisher or editor) is particularly good at self-promotion" (Calvert and Gorman, 2002:1). Harnad (1995) is strongly in favour of peer review. In one of his seminal articles on the topic (Harnad, 1998: paragraph one) he argues that journals should not be free from the

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"process of peer review, whose 'invisible hand' is what maintains its quality". Put another way, scientific or scholarly output should not be exempt from the process of peer review for validation and approval for circulation and use by the scholarly community. The use of publication count analysis is widely used for the quantitative measurement of research output. However, counting alone without qualitative analysis does not provide an outcome that is reliable. Some of the limitations of publication count that have been widely noted over the years (e.g. King, 1987; Sengupta, 1992; Kostoff, 2001; Moed, 2005; Schmoch and Schubert, 2009) include the argument that studies that use publication count do not measure the quality of research output; the approach is exclusive; the method does not account for contextual variations; publication count doesn't account for the size of the publications (i.e. short or long publications); and the approach doesn't account for the multi-dimensional nature of scientific activity. Despite these reservations, the method is still popular because it provides general and quick answers when measuring the research performance of individuals in a field, of institutions and the units within them, and of countries, which is fundamental for rapid decision making. In South Africa, for example, publication count (http://www.mth.uct.ac.za/ResearchOutput/guide_to_publication_cnt.html) is used, among other things, as: "... an annual compilation of the university's research output, which is submitted to the Department of Education to inform its allocation of government subsidy to the university every year". Increasingly, publication count as a descriptive bibliometrics method is triangulated with analytical informetric methods, such as citation analysis, in order to produce and obtain more reliable and robust results and avoid measurement biases (Moed, 2005; Schmoch and Schubert, 2009).

Scientometrics (quantitative measurement of science and scientific output), informetrics (quantitative measurement of information and information output), bibliometrics (quantitative measurement of records/recorded information and their output) and webometrics (quantitative measurement of web-based information and records and their output) provide methods for the quantitative measurement of research output and impact. Support for these methods is reflected in the activities of the International Scientometrics and Informetrics Association which has been organising ISSI conferences biennially since 1960. It is also reflected in the phenomenal support received from Thompson Reuters (popularly known as ISI) and through publications in mainstream domain journals such as *Scientometrics* and the *Journal of Informetrics* over the years. Increasingly, we note that research processes and research output undergo stages of validation through peer review before being accepted for funding, registration/acceptance, qualifications (e.g. Masters and Doctorates), and publication in scholarly outlets (e.g. journals).

There does not seem to be any consensus on the best way to measure research output in a given discipline; most members of the scientific community, particularly those in favour of quantitative measures of research such as Garfield (1994, 1998) and Harnad (1995, 1998) concur that peer-refereed journals offer a verifiable platform or source of measuring the research productivity of scholars. Each country, and in some cases institution, determines the quality of its research in different ways. Although other forms of research output, such as books, conference proceedings, reviews, theses and dissertations, patents, and other research reports of limited circulation, are used to measure research output, journal articles are still the most dominant, favoured and easily verifiable for quality control in scientific research. For example, quality research output in South Africa would most likely appear in a prescribed list of (currently 200) South African scholarly journals*, the Thompson Reuters (ISI) databases SCI, SSCI and AHCI [see <http://www.isinet.com/isi/journals/index.html>], and the International Bibliography of Social Sciences (IBSS) databases [see <http://www.lse.ac.uk/collections/IBSS/access/Default.htm>]. This would not include correspondence with the editors, abstracts or extended abstracts, obituaries, book reviews, news articles and advertorials. For each research article published in any journal indexed in the aforementioned lists or services, a substantial government research subsidy – which is regularly revised and increased – is paid to the author's affiliate institution, which then decides how to share the subsidy with the author(s)/contributor(s).

The criteria for recognised research output in South Africa as published in 2003 in the "Policy and Procedure for Measurement of Research Output for Public Higher Education institutions" (see <http://www.education.gov.za/Documents/policies/PolicyMeasurementResearch.pdf>), whose purpose it "... is to encourage research productivity by rewarding quality research output at public higher education institutions", specifies eligibility for subsidisation for journals, books and proceedings in sufficient detail.

2 Purpose of the paper

This paper explores definitions of Humanities and the Social Sciences and the terms 'research' and 'research output', and examines the status and challenges of research management at the University of Zululand to evaluate research in the cited fields. The paper answers the following research questions: what are the Humanities, Social Sciences and research output? How is research managed at the University of Zululand? What is the overall research output of the Faculty of Arts? What is the publication output in SAPSE accredited journals? What is the number and distribution of registered

research projects by each department? What is the publication output by author? Is there any relationship between research registration and publication output? And what are the sources of AH&SS publications in which the faculty publishes?

3 Research management at the University of Zululand

Research at the University of Zululand is managed by the Office of the Vice Rector of Academic Affairs and Research through the Senate Research Committee. The Committee is charged with the responsibility of formulating, coordinating and monitoring research policy and implementation. The Research Committee, which is normally chaired by the Vice Rector of Academic Affairs and Research, consists of two senate representatives, two council representatives, and four faculty representatives. The Research Office deals with day to day implementation. The university has a draft research policy, research website, and research administrator. The Research Office maintains a research database for ongoing and completed research as well as submitted research publications or output by staff and students. Research management within faculties is one of the key focus areas of all the Executive Deans of the various faculties. Increasingly, faculties appoint research officers or coordinators to coordinate research activities within their faculties. Staff members are required to register their research projects with the university and submit copies of all research output to the Research Office for recording and processing. However, not all staff members register their research projects with the university, particularly projects that are not funded by the university.

4 Method and data collection

We applied several methods and techniques for data collection. The literature review and our professional experiences and observations were used to conceptualise and contextualise the study. Quantitative content analysis through informetrics was used to analyze and demonstrate the status and trends of AH&SS research in the Faculty of Arts. This was achieved by using research data reflecting on ongoing and completed AH&SS registered research publications by staff and students in the Faculty of Arts from 1994 to 2008 based on research records captured and originating from the university's Research for the period. The period (1994 – 2008) was selected conveniently, although it falls within the period of South Africa's new political dispensation. The research database for registered research projects generally captures the researcher, department, faculty, project code, project status (i.e. whether active or not), and the project title. The publication data captures the name of the author, journal (year of publication, volume, pages, etc.), publication status (i.e. whether SAPSE-accredited or not), department, faculty, title, and other variables. Only the AH&SS publications by staff affiliated to departments in the Faculty of Arts at the university were selected. Data was quantitatively analysed by categorising research output by each of the variables outlined in the research questions, following some of the recent data analysis techniques employed by Ocholla and Ocholla (2007), Onyancha and Ocholla (2009), and Ocholla and Onyancha (2009). Pearson's correlation analysis was used to test whether there was any correlation between registered research projects and publications.

5 Results and discussion

The results and discussion are presented under Sections 5.1 to 5.6 below.

5.1 Faculty of Arts research publication output, 1994 - 2008

Research publication output refers to all the publications submitted by staff and students and captured by the university's Research Office from 1994 - 2008. These publications would normally include conference papers, journal articles, chapters in books, and books. Publication records were captured from 21 departments and centres that constitute the Faculty of Arts from 1994 to 2008. A total sum of 965 records was published by all the departments. The four top ranked departments with the highest publication output were Library and Information Science (219), English (169), Theology (151), and Psychology (86). The English department's publication output was the steadiest during this period. Library and Information Science increased its output significantly from 2002 to 2008. This is also when the LIS department increased collaboration or co-authorship between staff and students and produced its first doctoral student. Before then, single-authored publications predominated. The English Department's steady publication output could be attributed to the presence of senior academics, low staff turnover, and perhaps competition for promotion. We noted that publication output was closely related to the productivity of staff members, postgraduate (Masters and Doctoral) student enrolment (e.g. Library and Information Science and Psychology), participation in conferences, and co-authorship/collaboration among staff members (e.g. Psychology) or between staff and students (Library and Information Science). Many of the departments with lower outputs, especially in recent years (such as History and Afrikaans), were affected by reduced staff or the absence of postgraduate research capacity that could invariably contribute towards improved publication output. Academic promotion is also another incentive for greater publication output.

Table 1 Arts Faculty overall publication output for 1994 – 2008

Department	94	95	96	97	98	99	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Sum	Rank
Library & Information Science	2	4	2	2	6	3	1	5	18	14	12	40	26	49	36	220	1
English	12	8	14	8	14	11	6	11	8	11	12	10	10	21	14	170	2
Theology	16	5	15	13	44	9	6	3	4	4	10	15	5	3	2	154	3
Psycho-logy	4	1	3	0	3	3	3	8	7	2	10	9	7	16	10	86	4
Criminal Justice	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	3	8	1	5	1	7	33	63	5
Communication Science	2	2	3	1	2	6	2	4	4	8	3	7	1	5	4	54	6
Afrikaans	6	3	4	8	2	5	1	2	0	2	0	0	1	0	1	35	7
General Linguistics	2	2	2	1	0	3	2	4	4	2	1	2	1	3	3	32	8
History	5	0	2	3	3	2	1	0	0	2	2	1	0	2	3	26	9
Philosophy	4	2	1	1	2	2	0	0	2	2	0	6	2	1	1	26	10
Anthropology & Development	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	3	1	2	3	3	5		20	11
IsiZulu	0	2	2	0	1	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	2	4	0	17	12
Centre for Arts & Culture/Drama	0	2	2	2	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	13
Sociology	0	1	1	2	3	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	12	14
German	0	2	2	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	1	11	15
Recreation & Tourism	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	6	10	16
IsiZulu Language	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	8	17
Social Work	0	2	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	7	18
Zulu Dictionary Project	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	19
Total	54	36	55	41	89	49	27	39	58	59	54	101	64	125	114	965	

5.2. Publications with SAPSE accreditation

Publications that qualify for government or Department of Education subsidies, otherwise known as South African Post Secondary Education (SAPSE) publications, are those that appear in peer-refereed journals indexed by ISI, IBSS, and the South African prelisted journals mentioned earlier. They also include all other publications that qualify for such a subsidy (see Section 2.2). Such publications are expected to be rigorous, of high quality, and in the interest of promoting research and the development needs of the country. A substantive government subsidy is given to the institution of the author's affiliation for each qualifying publication. [This is normally counted in units. For example, one journal article is equivalent to one unit.] SAPSE publications play a significant role in the promotion of academic staff at the university.

Table 2 Arts Faculty SAPSE publications, 1994 – 2008

Department	94	95	96	97	98	99	00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	Total
English	10	5	6	8	8	7	0	6	5	9	7	4	6	11	8	100
Library & Information Science	1	0	4	1	5	2	1	4	6	7	10	16	8	9	11	85
Theology	13	4	4	5	6	2	3	3	3	4	8	12	2	0	1	70
Psychology	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	3	5	2	10	7	5	12	8	56
Afrikaans	3	3	4	5	1	5	1	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	27
Criminal Justice	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	1	5	1	5	0	3	6	25
Communication Science	1	1	3	1	0	1	1	0	4	7	0	0	0	3	2	24
Philosophy	0	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	5	2	2	0	17
General Linguistics	0	2	1	1	0	2	2	2	4	0	1	0	0	0	1	16
History	2	0	2	3	2	0	1	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	2	16
Anthropology & Development Studies	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	2	1	1	1	2	0	0	11
Sociology	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	7
IsiZulu	0	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
Centre for Arts & Culture	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	5
Social Work	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
German	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
IsiZulu Language Research & Development	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Zulu Dictionary Project	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Centre for Recreation & Tourism	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	30	25	27	26	31	21	14	22	36	40	41	52	26	41	40	472

English (93), LIS (86), Theology (70) and Psychology (56) were the leading departments. They were also the four leading departments in terms of overall publication output in more or less the same order, except that LIS produced the highest overall research output. Until 2004, Theology and Religious Studies was a fully fledged faculty at the university. Its output as a department in the Faculty of Arts since 2005 requires attention. Also worth highlighting is the inception of the Arts and Culture Centre in 2002 when the Departments of Drama and Music combined. Overall, there was a strong correlation between the overall departmental research publication and SAPSE publications.

5.3. Registered projects per department

To qualify for funding from the research committee, a research project has to be registered with the university and approved by the Research Committee. 307 research projects were registered in AH&SS from 1994 - 2008, with a growth in the number of registered projects noted in the course of the last five years. Projects are categorised as departmental or Masters or Doctoral research. The distribution, trends and status of research registration are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Overall registered research projects by departments, 1994 – 2008

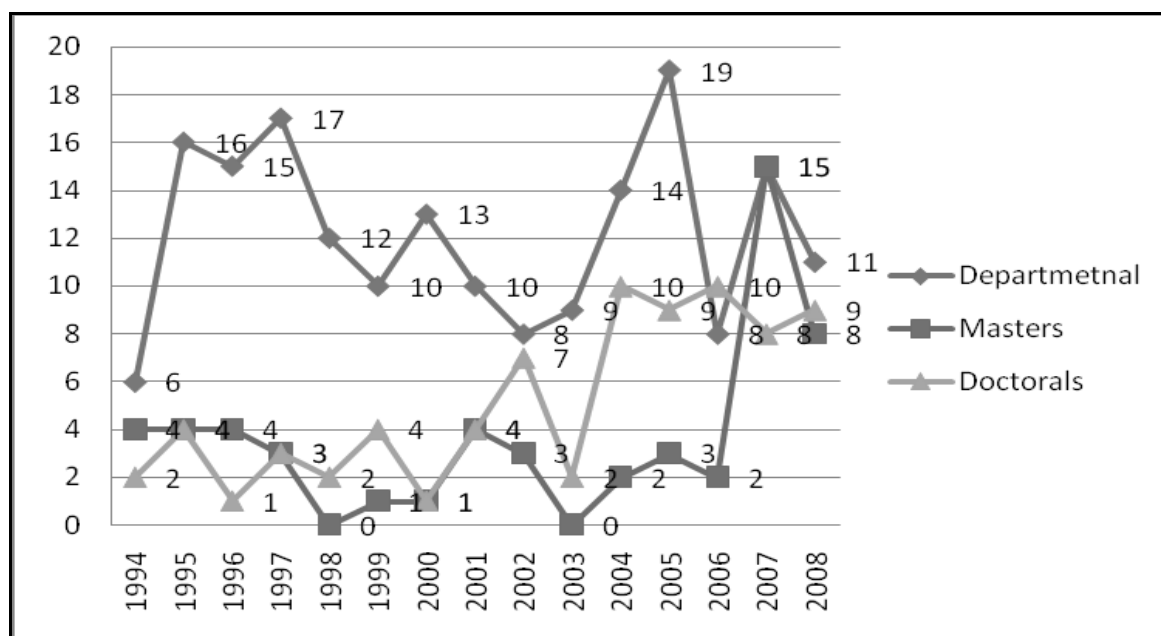
Department	94	95	96	97	98	99	00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	Total
Afrikaans	0	3	2	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	9
Anthropology & Development Studies	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	11
Centre for Arts & Culture	3	3	2	2	1	1	2	0	0	1	6	2	1	1	0	25
Centre for Recreation & Tourism	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	1	1	0	11
Communication Science	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	2	3	2	3	2	2	19
Criminal Justice	4	2	0	2	0	2	2	1	2	1	2	4	2	2	2	28
English	1	2	1	1	6	1	2	0	0	1	1	4	1	2	3	26
General Linguistics	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	0	11
German	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	5
History	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	4
IsiZulu	0	1	3	3	0	0	2	0	5	1	0	1	2	1	0	19
IsiZulu Language Research &	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Library & Information Science	0	3	1	1	2	5	2	6	5	2	3	5	7	12	1	55
Philosophy	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	4
Psychology	1	1	0	3	0	0	0	4	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	12
Social Work	0	4	2	4	1	1	0	1	3	0	1	1	0	3	9	30
Sociology	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	2	0	0	0	1	9
Theology	3	2	2	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	4	0	22
Zulu Dictionary Project	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	12	24	20	25	14	16	13	15	18	11	26	31	19	36	21	303

Departmental projects are research projects that are not registered for a formal qualification. Most such projects are based on individual or departmental research activities or undertakings by the academic staff for non-qualification purposes. A research project may be registered by more than one person if the work was collaborative or jointly authored. We counted such projects as one unit. Masters and Doctoral research projects are completed for qualification purposes and are therefore mainly registered by students, often with supervisors as research collaborators. As noted in Table 4 below, most research projects were departmental. It is highly possible that not all Masters and Doctoral research projects were registered by the university because the total number in the table is lower than our expectations. However, we did use the official university registrations as provided. The Department of LIS (55), Department of Social Work (30), Department of Criminal Justice (28), Department of English (26), and also the Centre for Arts and Culture (25) recorded the most registered research projects (see Tables 3 and 4). Library and Information Science was leading in postgraduate research registration in all three categories.

Data on the volume of registered research projects presented in Figure 1 is quite surprising. We note that there were no significant differences between registered Masters and Doctoral research over the period, which is abnormal. Speculatively, as some verification is required, it is possible that course work Masters and Doctoral studies were not registered by the university because departments with the highest number of students and projects in that category, such as Social Work (mainly Masters) and Psychology (mainly Doctorate), had fewer registrations in this category (which we find unusual). The extreme polarity in the three categories of research registration, particularly for Masters and Doctoral registration, also warrants further investigation.

Table 4 Registered research projects by department and categories

Department	Dept.	Ms	D	Total
Library & Information Science	27	13	15	55
English	17	4	5	26
Social Work	19	8	3	30
Criminal Justice	18	4	6	28
Centre for Arts & Culture/dram	19	4	2	25
Afrikaans	5	0	4	9
Communication Science	8	5	6	19
Sociology	4	1	4	9
Psychology	6	5	1	12
IsiZulu	6	5	8	19
Theology & Religion Studies	17	0	5	22
History	4	0	0	4
Anthropology & Development Studies	7	3	1	11
Centre for Recreation & Tourism	8	0	3	11
General Linguistics	9	1	1	11
Philosophy	0	0	4	4
German	5	0	0	5
IsiZulu Language Research & Development Centre	2	0	0	2
Zulu Dictionary Project	1	0	0	1
TOTAL	182	53	68	303

**Figure 1** The volume of registered research projects by categories, 1994 - 2008

5.4. Publication output by author

The Faculty of Arts produced many various publications, and most of these were through research. However, some of these are not recognised as scholarly publications or research output according to the Department of Education. The Faculty of Arts' publications broadly include theses and dissertations, non-peer reviewed articles/publications, peer-reviewed articles or publications, and SAPSE accredited publications. Since 1994, 965 such publications were captured by

the Research Office. However, it is important to note that not all publications by staff were registered with the Research Office as there are no strict requirements or policing to ensure compliance. Furthermore, some staff members joined the university in the middle or towards the end of 1994 - 2008 and therefore were not obliged to submit and register the publications that they produced prior to joining the university. We also noted that it is possible that some unpublished documents submitted by staff were also registered by the Research Office as publications, which is unfortunate and calls for the thorough auditing of the research records. The most prolific authors in the faculty as registered by the Research Office from 1994 - 2008 include JM Ras (102), DN Ocholla (90), NCT Meihuizen (60), SD Edwards (52), the late JA Loubser (46), CT Moyo (31), CA Addison (30), and MJ Hooper (29) [see Figure 2]. With the exception of Ras (11), Hooper (11) and Potgieter (12), almost the same order of authors (Ocholla – 43, Meihuizen – 41, Loubser 34, Edwards – 33, and Addison – 19) can be found at the top of the SAPSE listing for 1994 – 2008. We have also taken note of the publication output of Bosire Onyancha (now a senior lecturer at UNISA), whose research output when he was a Masters and Doctoral student (18 overall and 9 SAPSE publications for 2003 - 2007) in the Department of Information Studies, strongly suggests that with research support, students can contribute significantly to quality university research output (see Fig. 2). There were also suggestions in 1994 – 2008 that there could be a correlation between overall publication output (quantitative) and SAPSE publications (qualitative).

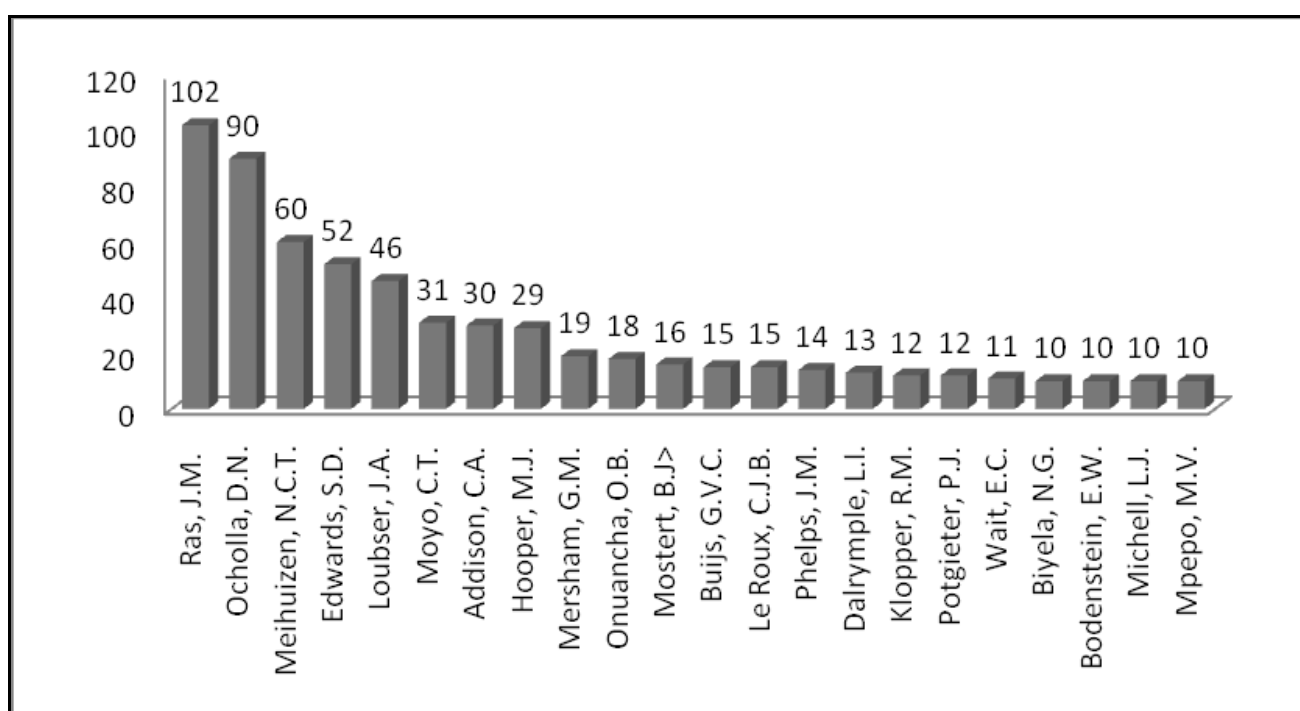


Figure 2 Authors - all publications, 1994 - 2008

5.5. Research registration and publication output

It is possible to check the relationships between research registration and publication output in order to account for and/or justify research funding. Table 5 and Figure 4 present the relationships between funding and quantitative (all) and qualitative (SAPSE) publications registered by the departments in different categories.

By comparing registered projects with both publications and SAPSE output, the relationship between these activities could be gleaned. Table 5 and Figure 4 suggest that there is a relationship between registered projects and publications, but not necessarily between registered projects and SAPSE output. For example, Social Work, Centre for Arts and Culture, IsiZulu Namagugu, and the Centre for Recreation and Tourism had high research registration and a low overall number of publications and SAPSE publications compared to other departments in the Faculty. On the opposite end, Library and Information Science, English, Theology and Religious Studies, and Psychology had high publication outputs in the two categories with low research registration, suggesting that research in these departments is a cost effective and cost beneficial practice.

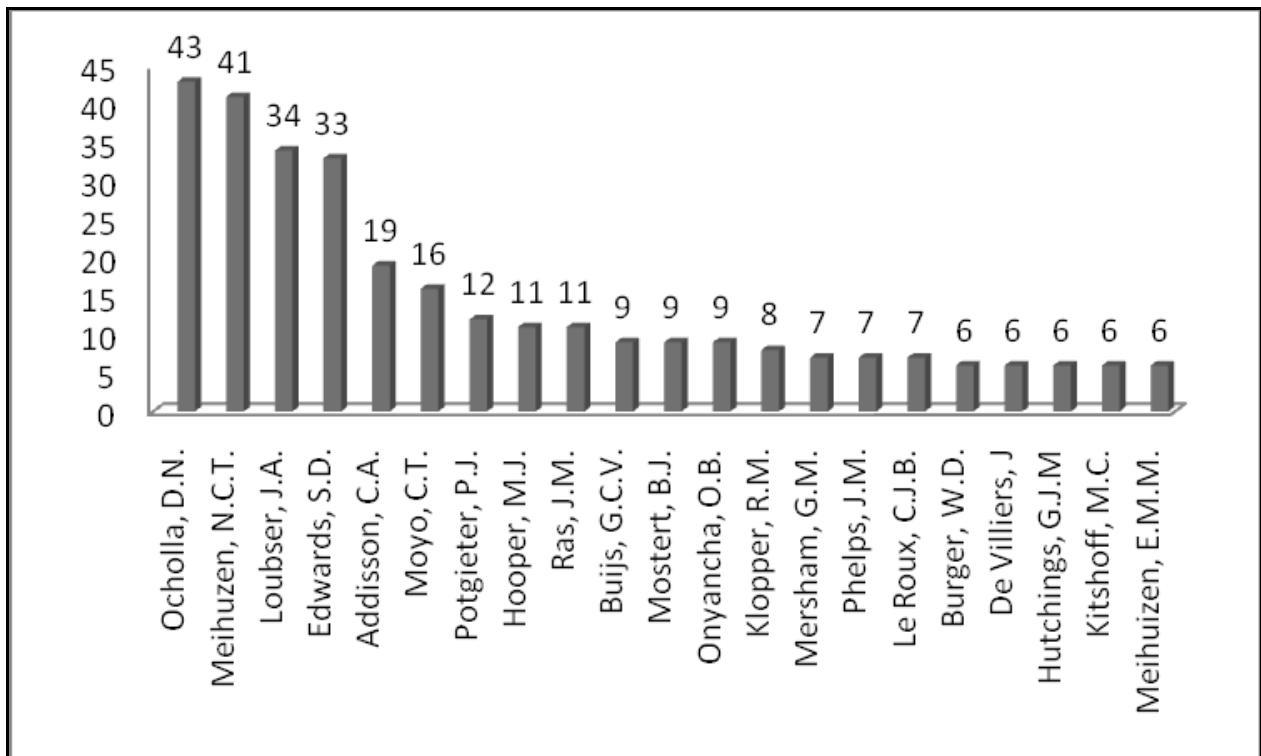


Figure 3 SAPSE publications by author

Table 5 Relationship between faculty research registration and publication output

Department	Dept.	Ms	D	Total	Publications	SAPSE
Library & Information Science	27	13	15	55	220	85
English	17	4	5	26	170	100
Social Work	19	8	3	30	7	4
Criminal Justice	18	4	6	28	63	25
Centre for Arts & Culture/dram	19	4	2	25	13	5
Afrikaans	5	0	4	9	35	27
Communication Science	8	5	6	19	54	24
Sociology	4	1	4	9	12	7
Psychology	6	5	1	12	86	56
IsiZulu	6	5	8	19	17	6
Theology & Religion Studies	17	0	5	22	154	70
History	4	0	0	4	26	16
Anthropology & Development Studies	7	3	1	11	20	11
Centre for Recreation & Tourism	8	0	3	11	10	0
General Linguistics	9	1	1	11	32	16
Philosophy	0	0	4	4	26	17
German	5	0	0	5	11	1
IsiZulu Language Research & Development Centre	2	0	0	2	8	1
Zulu Dictionary Project	1	0	0	1	1	1
TOTAL	182	53	68	303	965	472

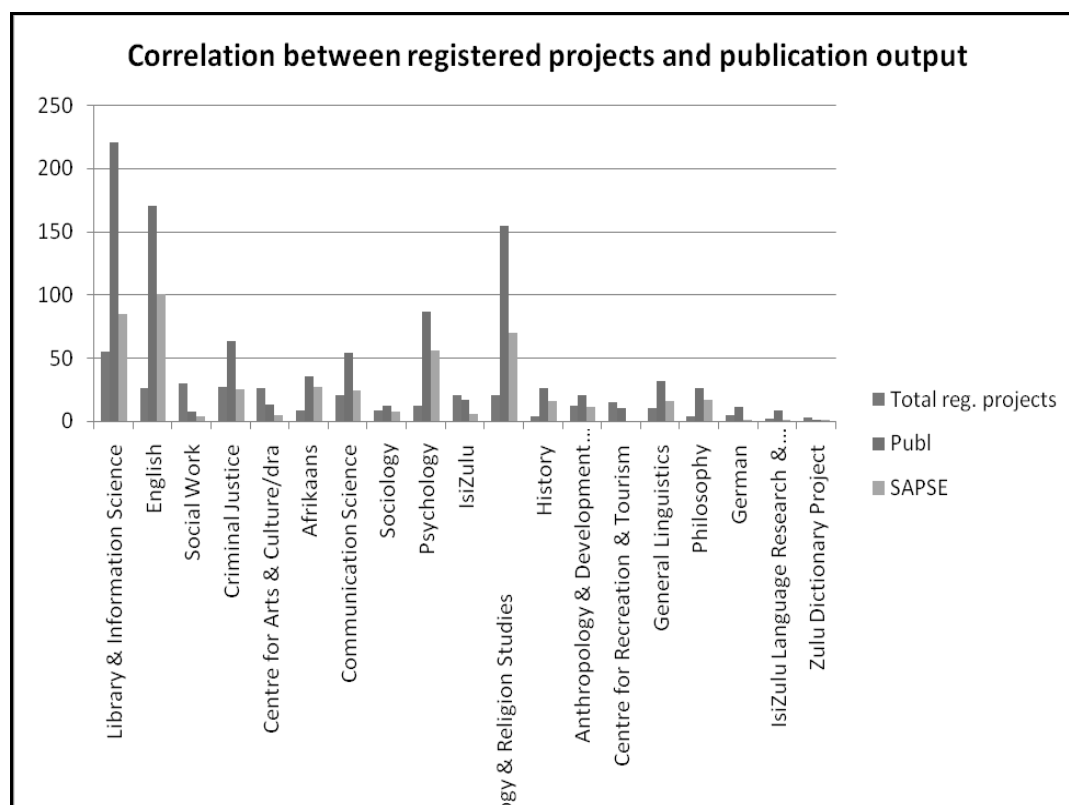


Figure 4 Relationship between research registration and publication output

Table 6 Correlation between registered research projects and publications

		Total Registration	Publications	SAPSE
Total Registration	Pearson Correlation	1	.711**	.588**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001	.05
	N	19	19	19
Publications	Pearson Correlation	.711**	1	.963**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.	.000
	N	19	19	19

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Using Pearson's Correlation analysis, we found a high correlation ($r = 0.711$) between the total registered projects and the total number of publications at the 0.01 level of significance. There is also a high correlation ($r = 0.963$) between the total registered projects and SAPSE at the 0.01 level of significance. It is a university research policy that every registered and university-funded research project must produce peer-refereed SAPSE publications within three years, otherwise there's no further funding.

Sources of AH&SS publications

Research can be published in theses and dissertations, books, conference proceedings, journals, and various other publications. From 1994 to 2008, 965 publications originating from 379 sources were produced and registered with the Research Office. Of these, 128 sources were SAPSE accredited, thus amounting to 479 publications. 450 publications originated from non-SAPSE sources. While the number of non-SAPSE sources was almost twice (251) the number of

SAPSE sources (128), publications in non-SAPSE sources were less than publications in SAPSE sources (by 29 records), meaning that scholars prefer publishing in SAPSE sources, mainly for government research subsidies and for promotion. Most of the SAPSE publications (191, 38.%) were in 10 leading journals, including the *South African Journal of Libraries and Information Science*, *Alteration*, *Acta Criminologica*, *Literator*, *English Review*, *Neotestamentica*, *SA Journal of African Languages*, *Indilinga - African Journal of Indigenous Knowledge Systems* and *English Studies Africa*. We further noted that most publications were in South African sources/journals. Publications in ISI- and IBSS-indexed journals were insignificant, suggesting that most AH&SS publications in the faculty and university generally occur in local sources. Most publications in non-SAPSE sources occurred in journals and most of these publications were not peer refereed. Journals were followed by conference proceedings, chapters in books, and books.

Table 7 Sources of publications, 1994 - 2008

SAPSE Publications		Other/Non SAPSE Sources	
Source(N= 128)	Count =479	Source(N=251)	Count=450)
South African Journal of Libraries and Information Science	42	Studies on Psychology	30
Alteration	37	Faculty of Arts Conference: Local and Global Issues in Research in Humanities and Social Sciences	27
Acta Criminologica	31	Proceedings of DLIS 9th Annual Conference	18
Literator	22	Proceedings of the DLIS/LISA 6th Annual Conference - Towards Popularizing LIS Research	17
English Academy Review	20	Christianoï	13
Neotestamentica	12	Discussion doc on democracy, citizenship & franchise	11
SA Journal of African Languages	10	Proceedings of DLIS 8th Annual Conference	11
Indilinga: African Journal of Indigenous Knowledge Systems	9	Progress in Library and Information Science in Southern Africa	9
English Studies in Africa	8	Proceedings of the DLIS/LISA 4th Annual Conference - Towards Popularizing LIS Research	7
Nomina Africana	7	Studies on War	7
Nederduits Gereformeerde Teologiese Tydskrif	7	International Review of Information Ethics	6
Hervormde Teologiese Studies	7	Journal of Psychology	6
Education for Information	7	Analecta Husserliana	4
Current Writing	7	Proceedings: 3rd Annual International Conference of Moi University	4
Studia Historiae Ecclesiasticae	6	The Heythrop Journal	4
Stilet	6	English Academy Review	3
South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation	6	GETT Propelled	3
Psychological Reports	6	Indo-Pacific Journal of Phenomenology	3
Library and Information Science Research	6	Inkanyezi Yokusa	3
International Journal of Mental Health Promotion	6	L'Epoque Conradienne	3
International Journal of Mental Health	6	Library Management	3
International Information & Library Review	6	LWATI: A Journal of Contemporary Research	3
Tydskrif vir Letterkunde	5	SACOMM	3
Tydskrif vir Geesteswetenskappe	5	Scrutiny 2	3

Conclusion and recommendations

The overall faculty publication count was 965 for 1994 - 2008, with significant growth by almost 50% in the number of registered research projects in the last three years (with the exception of 2007). Possible reasons include increased research funding, increased dependence on publications for promotion and accountability for research output, and more collaborative publications and student involvement. We observed from the data and from our own experiences within the department that there were close ties between overall publication output and the individual productivity of a staff member; postgraduate (M and Ds) student enrolment (e.g. Library and Information Science and Psychology); participation in conferences; and joint authorship or collaboration among members of staff (such as in Psychology) or Inkanyiso, *Jnl Hum & Soc Sci* 2010, 2(1)

between staff and students (Library and Information Science). Departments with more senior staff members and whose staff turnover was low (such as English) also demonstrated better publication outputs. Most registered research projects were for non-qualification (departmental) purposes. We expected the number of registered Masters research projects (54) to be higher than Doctoral studies (70), suggesting that some Masters and Doctoral research projects may not have been registered between 1994 - 2008. It is worth checking whether all Masters and Doctoral projects are actually registered by the Research Office as research projects. Departments that registered many research projects did not necessarily produce a corresponding volume of publications, particularly SAPSE publications. There was a strong correlation between overall publication output and SAPSE publications. Most publications, appeared in a few journals, thereby confirming Bradford's Law which states that: "If scientific journals are arranged in order of decreasing productivity of articles on a given subject, they may be divided into a nucleus of periodicals more particularly devoted to the subject and several groups or zones containing the same number of articles as the nucleus, when the number of periodicals in the nucleus and succeeding zones will be as 1: k: k²", where the constant k is known as Bradford's constant or multiplier (Ungern-Sternberg, 2000). Most staff members published in journals, and most of these were South African journals. Ocholla (2007) and other reports, such as the "Report on a Strategic Approach to Research Publishing in South Africa" (http://www.assaf.co.za/wp-content/uploads/reports/evidence_based/assaf_strategic_research_publishing.pdf) by the Academy of Science for South Africa (ASSAf), have argued that the large volume of publication in South African journals by South African scholars or researchers grew out of the embargo on South Africa in the past which forced the country to develop a large pool of scholarly journals (currently approximately 200) in all disciplines to encourage self reliance. This differs from the situation in other African countries where local scholarly journals are insignificant and scholars are either forced or encouraged to publish in foreign international journals for academic/research recognition and career growth. South African researchers have access to plenty of good local scholarly journals in which to publish their research output, and although publishing in foreign international journals is also encouraged, scholars in SA tend to rely more on South African journals. Increasingly, staff members publish in SAPSE accredited journals and conference proceedings. Publication in SAPSE journals is encouraged in the country by institutions of the researcher's affiliation because this helps the institution receive government research subsidies. It was also noted that a few authors published a lot of papers, which seems to confirm Alfred Lotka's law, i.e.: "For any body of literature, there will be a substantial number of authors who have each contributed only one publication, a smaller number of authors who have each contributed a small number of publications, and a very small group of authors who have each contributed a substantial number of publications" (Wallace, 1989:10). Note that it was not our intention to test either Bradford's law or Lotka's law in this instance.

We noted a few problems that relate to capturing research output at the university, such as the duplication of research documents or records, mixing published and unpublished documents, and the poor record keeping of theses and dissertations. Furthermore, more detailed codification or categorisation of research output (e.g. SAPSE/S, Non SAPSE/NS, Conference Proceedings/CP, Book/B, Chapter in Book/CB, Peer Refereed Conference Proceedings/PRCP etc) beyond the current categories (e.g. SAPSE and Non-SAPSE) is required for easier records management.

Our future research projects will focus on: research collaboration, which is important for research capacity building; subject analysis, to help determine research orientation, niche areas and collaboration across disciplines within the faculty; the use of robust qualitative analysis techniques such as citations, the impact factor and H-index analysis; and research visibility and presence in GS, Scopus and the Web of Science (ISI). We also hope to spread this study to other university faculties.

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Challenges of sustainable rural tourism development in KwaZulu-Natal

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Tourism has emerged as one of the strategic instruments and policy tools for community and regional development in Southern Africa (Rogerson, 2007 in Saarinen, et al. 2009). Gradually, tourism is rotating to the political centre stage as an instrument of social and economic empowerment (Binns & Nel, 2002). Consequently, local government authorities have instituted initiatives for promoting tourism as a sustainable economic driver in their municipalities. Sustainable rural tourism development is widely supported because it does not threaten the integrity of the ecological and social systems upon which communities and societies are dependent. Marien & Pizam in Wahab & Pigram (2004:165) argue that since communities are constantly changing, like the nature of tourism, evaluating community's sensitivity and associated impacts should not be regarded as an temporary event but as an ongoing process.

This study focuses on the strategic development of sustainable rural tourism in the rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal, more specifically Ntambanana Municipality. The objectives of the study were as follows: (a) To identify natural and socio-cultural resources that can be used for rural tourism development. (b) To assess the participation level of local communities in tourism development. (c) To establish the extent to which the tourism policies and strategies are implemented. (d) To identify the capacity of the local communities to develop tourism products. (e) To reveal the challenges that impede sustainable rural tourism development. Data from a sample size of 320 were collected and analysed using the SPSS programme.

The findings of the study indicated that there is potential for natural, cultural and heritage tourism due to the existence of a variety of related resources. The findings, however, indicated that local people are not aware of these resources hence the lack of participation in tourism development. Various strategies were suggested for raising social awareness and the promotion of cultural and heritage resources in the rural area.

Keywords: Tourism, rural tourism, sustainable tourism development, socio-cultural resources.

I Introduction

This paper presents the findings of research conducted in various rural areas in KwaZulu-Natal that are currently involved in various activities aimed at motivating local communities to participate in sustainable rural tourism development activities. The focus in this paper is on Ntambanana Municipality which serves as the case study. The Ntambanana authorities wanted to promote sustainable rural tourism development with the aim of improving the quality of life of the local residents. In doing so, it hoped to get local communities involved in the planning and development of tourism in their area. The efforts of the authorities are underpinned by the understanding that the success of tourism development depends on the extent of involvement of local communities in the tourism planning and development processes (Page & Dowling, 2002; Wahab & Pigram 2004). Tourism, and more specifically rural tourism, has been seen as a vehicle that has the potential to influence socio-economic changes through the use of natural and socio-cultural economic resources. It is this use, particularly the consumption pattern of socio-cultural resources, that has highlighted the significance of sustainability in rural tourism development, which has also turned tourism into not only an economic but also a social and political agent that affects wider natural and socio-cultural environments in various ways (Page & Dowling, 2002; Wahab & Pigram, 2004).

Most rural areas in South Africa are characterised by a lack of infrastructure, high illiteracy rates, unemployment, underdevelopment, poverty and a general lack of knowledge and understanding of tourism development issues. Several studies have recommended various approaches, such as the pro-poor strategies [PPT Strategies] that can be used to improve the living conditions and increase tourism development benefits for rural poor people from tourism development (Ashley & Roe, 2002:61). A number of these pro-poor strategies [PPT] strategies have been tried and implemented with varying degrees of success in some rural areas, but they have not yet been implemented in this particular study area. There are many reasons for the discrepancy in the success rate of the implementation of these strategies. Some of these include the heterogeneity of socio-political landscapes within each area; social cohesiveness and social mix, which should be conducive to rural tourism development as well as vast differences between the needs of the tourism industry and tourists, on the one hand, and those of the local inhabitants of rural areas on the other hand. Communities living in abject poverty worry more about the satisfaction of their basic needs and less about satisfying the needs of the tourists, which is the main focus of the tourism industry.

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This paper presents the findings of the research conducted in various rural areas that are currently involved in various activities aimed at motivating local communities to participate in sustainable rural tourism development activities. Their efforts are underpinned by the understanding that the success of tourism development depends on the extent of involvement of local communities in the tourism planning and development processes (Page & Dowling, 2002; Wahab & Pigram, 2004).

2 Aim and objectives of the study

The broad aim of this study is to establish the challenges that impede sustainable rural tourism development as well as to find ways in which the utilisation of the socio-cultural resources is managed economically, socially, culturally and environmentally in order to ensure sustainable tourism development in these areas. This main aim of this study was then narrowed down to the following objectives.

- (a) To identify natural and socio-cultural resources that can be used for rural tourism development.
- (b) To assess the participation level of local communities in tourism development.
- (c) To establish the extent to which the tourism policies and strategies are implemented.
- (d) To identify the capacity of the local communities to develop tourism products.
- (e) To reveal the challenges that impede sustainable rural tourism development.

3 The theoretical framework

Ntambanana Local Municipality [NLM] is mainly a rural area located within the Uthungulu District Municipality on the north coast of KwaZulu-Natal. This local municipal area is rich in cultural and heritage resources which have not been used to the benefit of the local community. Ntambanana Municipality, like many other predominantly rural municipalities, is currently seeking to attract tourists to its area using these local resources, specifically the cultural, heritage and natural assets, in order to improve the quality of life of the residents. Tourism has been linked with poverty reduction for a number of reasons, such as its ability to thrive in rural areas using readily available natural and socio-cultural resources thus creating job opportunities for the local residents (Ashley & Roe, 2002). There are several approaches, sometimes referred to as PPT strategies, such as community-based tourism, responsible and/or sustainable tourism as well as ecotourism initiatives that have been recommended to make tourism a real tool for poverty reduction in rural areas (Ashley & Roe, 2002). These strategies were first suggested several years ago but this study found that there are still serious challenges that make sustainable rural tourism development remain a dream rather than a reality in rural areas.

The World Tourism Organisation defines sustainable tourism development as “meeting the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future tourists to meet their own needs. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems” (WTO in Cooper *et al.*, 2008: 216). In addition to the management of resources, sustainable tourism development also refers to the optimal use of natural and cultural resources for national development on an equitable and self sustaining basis to provide a unique visitor experience and an improved quality of life through partnership among government, the private sector and communities (Cooper *et al.*, 2008: 216).

To ensure that development and promotion of rural tourism using locally available resources is sustainable, local community participation is inevitable (Wahab & Pigram, 2004). Currently there is no consensus on the precise definition of what rural tourism is; however, Viljoen and Tlabela (2007:1) point out that “rural tourism consists of leisure activities carried out in rural areas, and includes different types of tourism activities such as community-based tourism, ecotourism, cultural tourism, adventure tourism, guest tourism, back packing, riding and agritourism”. Local people are custodians of the resources in their areas such as socio-cultural and heritage resources and, therefore, should be actively involved in the identification of the assets that will be used in any form of rural tourism development.

Fairer-Wessels (2009:101) in Saarinen *et al.* (1990), points out that in recent years a vast amount of changes has been observed in both production and consumption of heritage tourism-related products. Heritage attractions have developed a niche in the tourism industry and are now regarded as part of contemporary consumption (Apostolakis, 2003:796). It is imperative that the production and consumption of these resources is done in a sustainable manner. There are three key components that are necessary in ensuring sustainable rural tourism development. These are the infrastructural (roads, electricity, etc.), material (natural resources, public and private structures, etc.); as well as the immaterial components (the capacity of the local people to utilise the existing resources, political and socio-cultural environments, etc.). The existence of these components serves as the foundation for sustainable rural tourism development.

This type of development is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs are fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes as well as biological and life support systems. This assertion, therefore, means that if the utilisation of these resources is well managed economically, socially, culturally and environmentally, sustainable rural tourism development can be realised for the present and future generations of this area.

The South African government has become aware of the potential for tourism to play a meaningful role in contributing to the economic development of the country, particularly the rural areas. Tourism has been seen as a tool with a potential to enhance the development of rural areas on an ecologically and economically viable basis, and also as a vehicle that can improve the quality of life of people living in the rural areas. In endorsing this realisation, the government has prioritised tourism as one of the five economic growth sectors on which to focus its effort to support investment and facilitate growth (SAT 2008). There are, however, various challenges relating to spreading tourism to rural areas. In an attempt to address these challenges local governments have directed their efforts to encouraging the infiltration of tourism in these rural areas and consequently, there have been many initiatives to highlight tourism as an economic driver in its various forms. Cultural experiences and their diversification as well as tours to rural areas were identified as “product gaps” by the Global Competitive Project (SAT, 2004: 2).

South Africa's rich and varied cultural and natural resources have given the country a competitive advantage and a basis for tourism development and growth (Van Vuuren, 2004; Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007). The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa has contended that the prime tourism attractions are not located in the city centres but in the rural areas (DEAT, 1996). It is important to develop tourism in rural areas like Ntambanana Municipality in order to increase the participation of the rural poor in the development of tourism, thus distributing the potential benefits more evenly across the province (Holland, Burian & Dixey (2003) in Viljoen & Tlabela (2006:1); Visser, 2004). It is imperative that resources for tourism development are used in a sustainable manner which dictates that tourism should be planned, developed and operated within the context of sustainable development principles. Tourism development in rural areas is a challenge that needs to be managed. Ashley & Roe (2002) warn that in order to sustain participation by local communities, expectations should be managed. They should be aware that results will be slow and it then becomes important to develop short-term benefits and to build local ownership.

To ensure the sustainable use the local resources for rural tourism development, there are two critical preconditions that need to be taken into consideration (1) participation of the local communities and (2) a strategic development plan (Viljoen, Ringdahl, Adams & Tlabela, 2004; Wahab & Pigram, 2004). A tourism policy is an indispensable precursor for any tourism planning and development as it provides a framework for tourism development strategic planning. A tourism policy draws developmental parameters from the availability of resources, the nature of the tourism products, marketing, envisaged target markets, outlined alternatives, choices, strategies and plans. Generally, the tourism policy should specify the tourism goals which would include economic goals, socio-cultural goals, environmental goals, market development goals and government operations (political) goals. Once the tourism policy has been established, a *tourism strategy* is needed to achieve the goals and objectives of the policy. It is, therefore, clear that in order for Ntambanana Municipality to engage in any form of rural tourism development it needs a clear policy and a strategic plan. It is important for local people to understand that the successful implementation of the strategy requires action at various levels on “several fronts including product development, marketing, planning, policy and investment” (Ashley & Roe, 2002:80).

Due to the perceived abundance of cultural and heritage resources in rural areas, the Ntambanana Municipality has seen cultural and heritage tourism as a form of tourism that can contribute to local economic development. Cultural tourism is a branch of tourism aimed at investigating ways in which culture can be used to create value in the tourism sector. It is also seen as a way marginalised communities and individuals can benefit from tourism on the basis of their cultural resources (Viljoen, 2007). The extent of benefits is determined by the extent to which local communities are able to leverage cultural knowledge and skills as resources for entrepreneurship (Van Vuuren, 2004). This means that local people should be able to turn cultural and heritage resources into marketable products of profitable value. In most cases local communities' lack knowledge of the scale, volume and economic significance of cultural tourism, and this results in a lack of enthusiasm in participating in tourism development issues, thus translating to less than expected benefits for local communities (Page & Thorn, 1998 in Hall & Lew, 1998).

Cultural tourism relates to visits by persons from outside the host community, motivated wholly or in part by interest in historical, artistic, scientific, lifestyle or heritage offerings of a region, community or group (Magnussen & Visser, 2003). Seen from this perspective, cultural tourism creates opportunities for cultural aspects which are of interest to the visitor to be marketed as such which may include the customs and traditions of people, their heritage, history and their ways of life (DEAT, 1996). Cultural tourism has been found to provide interesting opportunities for tourists with special interests

(Ivanovic, 2008). Special interest tourism would create an opportunity for the municipality to provide customised leisure and recreation experiences based on individually or group expressed interests and needs.

According to Smith (2003) cited in Ivanovic, (2008) cultural tourism comprises the following categories:

- Heritage tourism
- Arts tourism
- Urban cultural tourism
- Rural cultural tourism
- Indigenous cultural tourism
- Contemporary cultural tourism.

With the exception of urban tourism, the Ntambanana Municipality has the potential to initiate all these forms of cultural tourism as part of its sustainable rural tourism development drive.

Heritage is a broad concept that includes the natural as well as cultural environment, biodiversity, collections, past and continuing cultural practices, knowledge and living experiences. Fairer-Wessels (2009:101) in Saarinen *et al.* (2009) defines heritage as the legacy that is passed on to future generations and further describes it as history which has been processed through mythology, ideology, nationalism, local pride, romantic ideas or marketing into a commodity. Heritage encompasses the long processes of historical development which forms an essence of diverse national, regional, indigenous and local identities. Heritage is, therefore, irreplaceable and it provides a dynamic reference point for growth and change, in which case heritage is basically the present day use of the past (Ashworth, 1994; Timothy & Boyd, 2006). A particular heritage provides a unique collective memory of each locality or rural community and is largely concerned with the interpretation and representation of the past.

Heritage tourism is one of the oldest forms of travel that is a subset of cultural tourism which is based on heritage. Heritage is, in this case, the core of the product that is offered and is the primary motivating factor for travelling (Timothy & Boyd, 2006; Magnussen & Visser, 2003). In most cases, heritage tourism has become a key driver of cultural tourism which has at its core the present consumption of the past, utilising both tangible and intangible features of the landscape (Timothy & Boyd, 2006). With its rich heritage, Ntambanana can embark on heritage tourism as a component of its rural tourism development project.

Culture, heritage and the arts have proved to have the potential of attracting tourists in many parts of the world. This can be done through showcasing the values, life styles and traditions of indigenous cultural communities by staging activities such as festivals, fairs, rituals, etc. The other form of tourism that would thrive in the Ntambanana Municipality is creative tourism. Creative tourism is the type of tourism that allows tourists to develop their creative skills through active participation in workshops and other learning experiences which are characteristic of the local community (Ivanovic, 2008). The challenge is turning all these ideas into rural tourism products, which requires skills in packaging and aggressive marketing.

In the process of planning and developing cultural and heritage tourism products, selecting the most interesting sites and assigning particular presentation and interpretation is crucial. Making history and cultural heritage accessible, transparent and attractive requires careful consideration of the nature of a product. According to Smith (2003) in order to create a successful and attractive cultural package or product for tourism consumption, it is important to understand the cultural attraction mix strategies which include the following:

- Bunching/clustering of cultural attractions – clustering of several weak attractions into a strong primary attraction with greater historical significance
- Theming of cultural attractions – an attraction is themed in order to enhance its uniqueness.
- Labelling of cultural attractions – emphasis is placed on the functional use of the attraction.
- Altering of cultural attractions – applied to potential tourist attractions only.

Packaging of products also involves the presentation and interpretation of cultural and heritage products. Presentation includes selection, evaluation, preservation and conservation of important heritage objects in museums and other heritage sites. This is done by facilitating public access to facilities, as well as encouraging participation, which would enhance public appreciation of the heritage. Interpretation is necessary in order to communicate the meaning and value of the cultural heritage object and also to stimulate, facilitate and extend people's understanding. It is believed that through their understanding of a place people would be more concerned about the development and conservation of cultural and heritage landscapes. There are a number of challenges that have been associated with tourism development in rural areas, such as a general lack of capacity and tourism development related skills. What cripples the impetus for

development is the lack of business management skills and general understanding of tourism and the tourism industry (Ashley & Roe, 2002).

4 Methodology

A combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches was used to address the research questions. To ensure the best results, respondents were selected from four out of eight wards that make up Ntambanana Municipality. Random sampling was used to get the total sample size of 72 respondents from the four wards. The sample included respondents from four population sectors or stakeholders: (a) tourism service providers; (b) Government officials working in the tourism unit of the Municipality; (c) the youth, mainly high school learners older than 16 years; and (d) the residents of Ntambanana Municipality.

Questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data, and for qualitative data, observation method, focus groups, documentary analysis techniques, visitor-entry book as well as group and individual interviews were used. The sources of secondary data related to this study included policy documents, municipal IDPs, as well as the work done by such National and Provincial Government departments. Quantitative analysis of data collected through the questionnaires was done using the statistical package called Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

5 Findings of the study

The findings were guided by the objectives of the study which cover the following areas of analysis: resources used for rural tourism development; community participation in tourism development; implementation of tourism policies; community's development of tourism products; and challenges that impede sustainable rural tourism development. The findings are discussed below.

5.1 Natural and socio-cultural resources available in the area

The first objective of the study was to identify natural and socio-cultural resources that can be used for rural tourism development. Based on the environmental scan, the findings indicated that the Ntambanana Municipality, like many rural localities, is well endowed with natural as well as socio-cultural resources that can be developed into tourism products. The abundance of natural, cultural and heritage resources indicate that there are opportunities for natural as well as cultural and heritage tourism development in the Ntambanana Municipality. Table 1 provides a list of resources that were perceived to have a potential for rural tourism development.

Table 1 Available resources found in Ntambanana

Rank	Natural & socio-cultural resources	Absolute Frequency	Frequency %	Type of rural tourism that can be developed
01	Natural landscape with traditional homesteads	59	82%	Cultural heritage tourism
02	Indigenous forests	48	67%	Nature based tourism
03	Wildlife	45	63%	Wildlife appreciation; ecotourism,
04	Rivers and dams	43	60%	Nature based tourism
05	Farms	39	54%	Agri-tourism
06	Reed	37	51%	Cultural heritage
07	Cultural village	32	44%	Cultural
08	Senior citizens (oral history)	30	42%	Cultural heritage tourism
09	Open land suitable for camping facilities	29	40%	Nature based tourism
10	Various bird species	28	39%	Bird appreciation
11	Various historical sites	25	35%	Cultural Heritage tourism

[n = 72. Some of the subjects gave more than one response for available resources]

The Ntambanana Municipality has a rich history that can be packaged and presented for the enjoyment of tourists as part of heritage tourism in local museums, cultural villages, information centres, community halls, etc. With its farms and agricultural environment Ntambanana Municipality has the potential for developing and promoting tourism activities such as agricultural product tasting, farm related activities, agricultural fairs and festivals. These are opportunities for tourism

development that have not been explored. In other words, it is necessary to emphasise the relationship between agriculture and tourism, considering that farming is a strategic factor in the economic development of an area.

5.2 Participation level of local communities in tourism development

The second objective was about assessing the participation level of local communities in tourism development. Respondents were asked if adequate opportunities have been created for them to participate in any rural tourism activity or if they had attended any meeting that discussed tourism opportunities in the area. As depicted in Figure 1, the majority of the respondents (54%) indicated that there had been inadequate opportunities created hence they had not been involved in any way and only 15% of the respondents indicated that they were currently involved in tourism activities such as product development. A significant number (31%) of the respondents were not sure but were willing to participate if invited to do so. The lack of enthusiasm and poor participation in tourism development initiatives could result from the high illiteracy rate and the lack of understanding of the economic benefits of tourism.

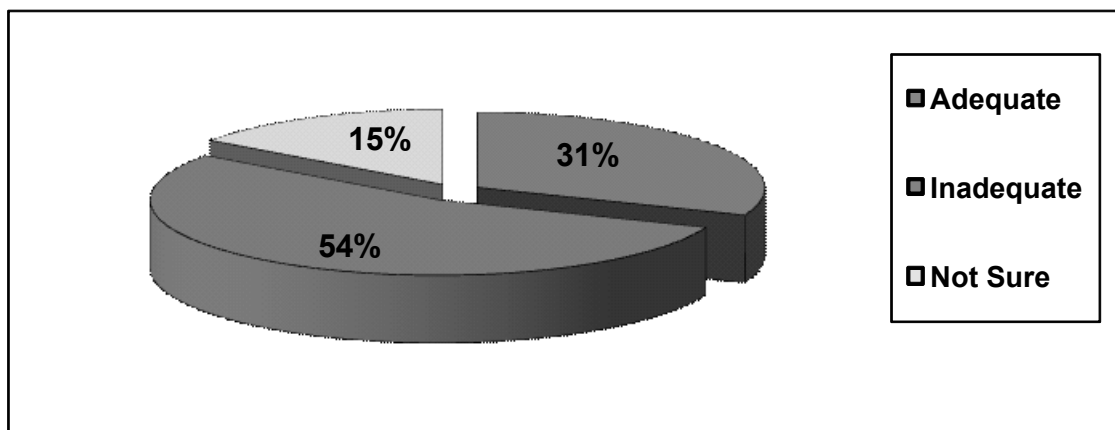


Figure 1 Participation in tourism development

It was not surprising that when the respondents were asked if they thought the existing resources were adequate to stimulate tourism development in their area, the majority of them (52%) who were mainly community members indicated that the resources were inadequate, while 53%, who were the officials, indicated these were adequate and 44% of the respondents, mainly the service providers, were not sure of the adequacy of the resources. The findings indicated that the officials of the Ntambanana Municipality, who are supposed to lead tourism development, are positive about the adequacy of the resources that are readily available to stimulate tourism development in the area. Due to their lack of participation, local community members are not aware of whether the existing resources can serve as a basis for stimulating tourism development. These responses can be attributed to the fact that local community members have little knowledge of the tourism potential of the resources in their area.

Table 2 Perceived adequacy of existing natural resources

Response	Community Members	Service Providers	Officials
Adequate [Positive]	19%	28%	53%
Inadequate [Negative]	52%	28%	20%
Not Sure [Undecided]	29%	44%	27%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%

[n = 72. Some of the subjects gave more than one response for each variable]

The Ntambanana Municipality has a rich history that can be packaged and presented for the enjoyment of tourists in local museums, cultural villages, information centres, community halls, etc, which would be packaged as part of heritage tourism. With its rural environment, Ntambanana Municipality has potential for developing tourism activities such as farm tourism, agricultural tourism, fairs, festivals, etc. The responses could be the result of the local people's lack of

understanding of the relationship between agriculture and tourism as strategic factors in the economic development of their area.

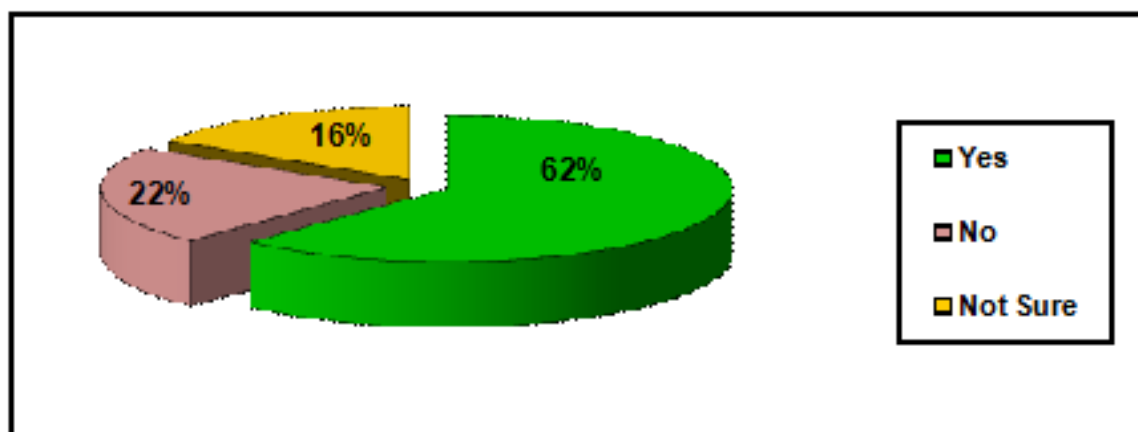
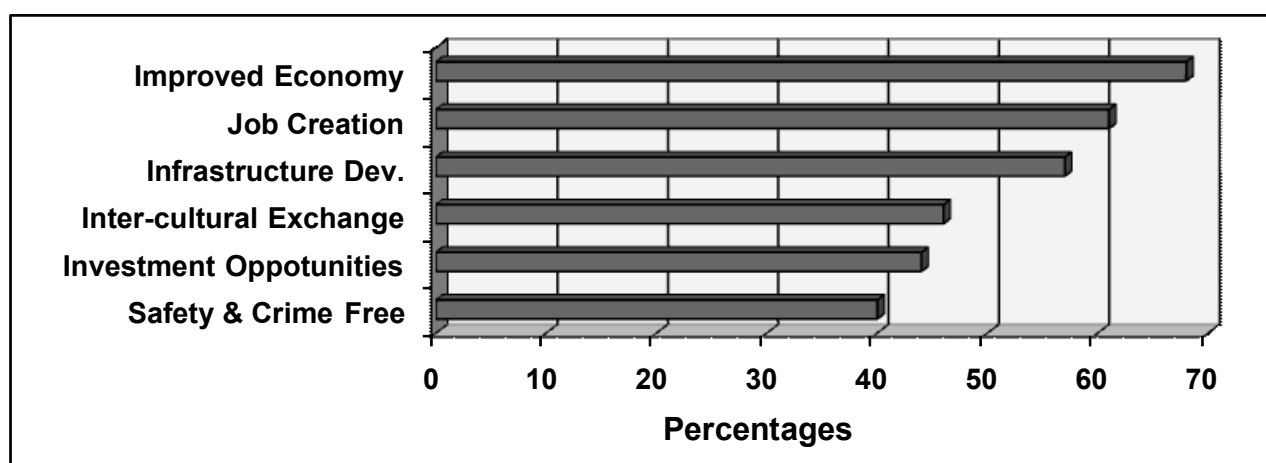


Figure 2 Perceived importance of tourism development

In order to consolidate the notion of the importance of tourism development in the Ntambanana Municipal area, the respondents were asked to give reasons for their support of tourism development and promotion. The reasons that were provided are listed in order of importance in Figure 3. The majority of respondents (68 percent) thought the “improved economy” and “job creation” (60 percent) were the most important reasons for promoting tourism development in the Ntambanana Municipality Area.



[n = 72. Some of the subjects gave more than one response for each variable]

Figure 3 Reasons for the importance of tourism development

Furthermore, reasons such as infrastructural development (57%) were seen as pointing to the need for improving the physical and spatial development of the Ntambanana Local Municipality. These findings are in line with the theory that indicates that rural tourism development has challenges ranging from logistical issues such as infrastructure to the availability of skills (Viljoen & Tlabela 2006). The findings further indicate that inter-cultural exchange, investment opportunities, and the creation of a safe and crime free environment were also seen as important. The reason for these responses may be attributed to the shortage of jobs in the area.

5.3 The extent to which the tourism policies and strategies are implemented

The third objective was to establish the extent to which the tourism policies and strategies are implemented. As indicated earlier, a tourism policy is an indispensable precursor for any tourism planning and development as it provides a

framework for tourism development strategic planning. A tourism policy draws developmental parameters from the availability of resources, the nature of the tourism products, marketing, envisaged target markets, outlined alternatives, choices, strategies and plans. Respondents were asked if they were aware of the tourism policy and strategy for their Municipality.

Table 3 Knowledge of existence of the tourism development strategy in the study area.

Response	Existence Of Policy	Existence Of Strategy	Need For New Policy & Strategy
Aware [Positive]	19%	18%	76%
Not Aware [Negative]	52%	58%	07%
Not Sure [Undecided]	29%	24%	17%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%

[n = 72. Some of the subjects gave more than one response for each variable]

A majority of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of the existence of tourism policies and strategies in the study area. A significant 29 percent of the respondents also indicated they were not sure of the existence of the tourism policy and the strategic plan. A majority (76 percent) of the respondents felt that there was a need for a new tourism policy and strategy for the Ntambanana Municipal area. The reason for this reaction from the respondents is the limited flow of information from the authorities who develop policies and the residents who are affected by these policies.

5.4 The capacity of the local communities to develop tourism products.

The fourth objectives was to identify the capacity of the local communities to develop tourism products. When asked if they knew how to package the natural and cultural resources into tourism products, the findings indicated that only 12% had an idea of what can be done to use the available resource for tourism development.

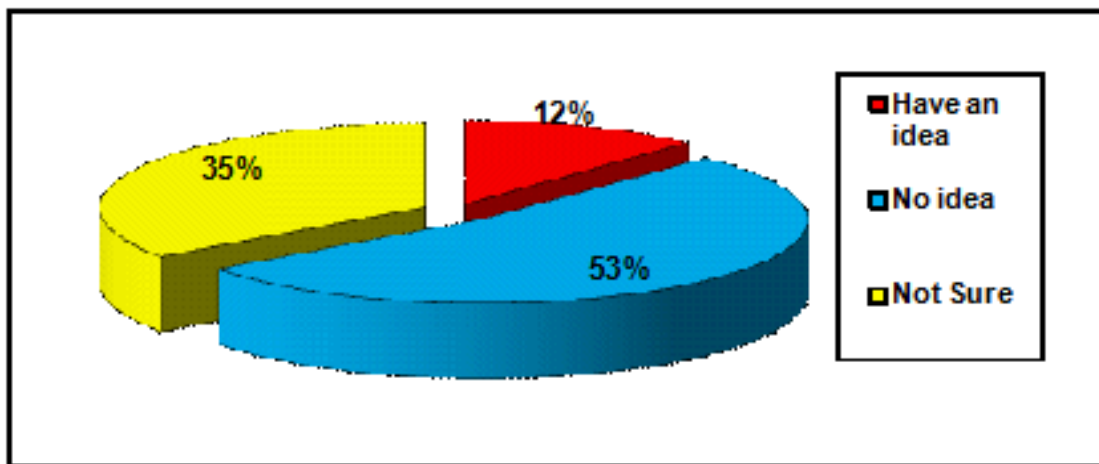


Figure 4 Knowledge of packaging existing resources into tourism products

The majority of the respondents (53%) indicated that they had no knowledge of how to package the existing resources into tourism products. These responses clearly indicate that local community members lack the capacity and skills that are necessary for tourism development.

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they thought it is important to promote tourism development in their area. When asked if they were doing anything to improve their skills, the majority indicated that the government should provide resources for them to develop their area.

5.5 The challenges of tourism development in the rural areas

There are many challenges that are related to tourism development in the rural areas which require action by various stakeholders at various levels. The findings of the research study revealed that major challenges include, but are not limited to the following factors:

(a) Brain-drain of skills from rural areas

Educated people tend to leave the rural areas soon after receiving their qualifications to seek better opportunities in urban areas. This brain drain leaves these rural areas with people who are unable to participate effectively in tourism development issues. Any intervention in this case has to start with capacity building which will enhance business related skills such as identifying business opportunities, initiating and running business enterprises, negotiation skills, etc. and increase their understanding of tourism and tourists' needs.

(b) Dependency syndrome

The respondents were asked who they thought was responsible for tourism development in their area; The majority indicated that they believed that the government was not only expected to take the leading role in tourism development but also to be responsible for the sustenance of their livelihood. They also seem to think that the government has to hold them by the hand and even tell them what to do. This community behaviour indicates a lack of confidence in themselves that they can be in control of tourism development of their area

(c) The need for empowerment

Members of the local community in the study area are still very reluctant to participate in rural tourism development activities and yet community participation has been seen as a key to sustainable tourism development. The findings of the study point to the need for developing both financial and non-financial empowerment strategies which are expected reduce the vulnerability of local people by increasing their independence and confidence in engaging in decision-making processes. This finding is supported by Becker (2006b), who asserts that it is necessary to negotiate for poverty alleviation opportunities that are likely to secure and improve the physical and emotional survival of the people.

(d) Lack of basic infrastructure

The lack of basic infrastructure such as roads disintegrates the link between rural areas and established tourist attractions thus leaving rural areas on the periphery of the tourism industry. Tourism cannot be developed in a vacuum, and therefore cannot afford to be detached from the mainstream of the tourism industry.

(e) Lack of political will

The government has the power to shape the rural tourism landscape in terms of how tourism is planned, promoted, managed and regulated. There are many influences which the government can harness that are outside the control of tourism itself and yet have a direct impact upon its development e.g. political rivalry which makes it difficult to initiate tourism projects in contested areas.

(f) Lack of knowledge about resources transformation

The challenges of rural tourism development are compounded by the lack of knowledge and skills to turn raw materials into marketable products. This process would produce spin-off in the form of job creation, employment and poverty alleviation in the rural area. Furthermore, this would lead to meeting the challenges of sustainable rural tourism development.

(g) Inability to market the cultural products

To ensure commercial viability of the rural tourism products it is imperative that attention be given to product quality, marketing and investment in business skills.

(h) Inability to adapt to the pace of change

Change in tourism is inevitable as tourists are becoming more knowledgeable and sophisticated, thus making new demands. It is therefore inconceivable that the world of tourism would change rapidly and rural tourism in the study area remain stagnant.

While the government is prepared to participate in tourism development, the problem has always been to find the correct mixture of market orientation and state intervention that can lead to more sustainable forms of tourism development. It is on the basis of this mixture that a set of arrangements can be devised between the government, the private sector and the local communities that would promote tourism development.

6 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study it is clear that in order to create a successful and attractive cultural and heritage rural tourism package or product for tourism consumption, local communities need to have a broad understanding of the cultural attraction mix strategies. In addition to this understanding, local communities also need to acquire certain skills necessary to identify business opportunities, initiate and nurture those businesses. In order for sustainable tourism

development in rural areas to thrive on a continual basis, it is, therefore, recommended that (a) the community members should work together in identifying the socio-cultural and heritage assets that can be packaged into tourism products; (b) the provision of capacity building programmes which would provide local communities with the basic skills be urgently introduced; (c) tourism road-shows be started in rural areas, so as to create awareness of the tourism benefits. (d) attention be given to the clustering of several weak attractions into a strong primary attraction with greater historical significance. (e) capacity building on packaging, presentation, interpretation and marketing of cultural and heritage rural tourism products as well as general business management, be provided to ensure sustainable rural tourism development.

7 Conclusion

This study pointed at a number of ways in which rural areas can be positioned as a 'must-visit' natural, cultural and heritage "rural" tourist destination taking into consideration the dynamic character of the tourism industry. The study has further highlighted the significance of active involvement by local communities who are the custodians of the resources that can be used for tourism development. The range of natural, cultural and heritage tourism products found in rural areas is very wide; therefore, it is important to select a procedure to be followed in the process of product planning and development. It is also necessary to link the resources available with the skills that are required by the local communities in order for them to participate effectively in sustainable rural tourism development.

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Health caregivers' approach towards the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons in uMhlathuze

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This study examined health caregivers' approach to the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons in uMhlathuze from a social work perspective. The study was a bid to know the efficacy of approaches used in rehabilitating HIV and AIDS persons. In generating data for the study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods, largely through survey by interview and questionnaire and content analysis by review of extant literature was applied. A sample of 50 respondents was purposively drawn from three health centres in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, namely Ngwelezana Hospital, Richards Bay Clinic and eNseleni Community Health Centre, by the use of a questionnaire. The interview schedule was administered on 15 respondents in a face-to-face interview. They were also among the 50 respondents that participated in answering the questionnaire: 3 respondents from Richards Bay, 6 from eNseleni CHC and 6 from Ngwelezana Hospital. The study recommends that efforts be made towards the overhauling of equipment, facilities and skilled man-power, in the rehabilitation process.

Keywords: Health Caregivers, HIV, AIDS, uMhlathuze, South Africa

I Introduction

The Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) is a retrovirus that belongs to the sub-family lentivirinae, having two distinct types, HIV-1 (divided into Group M (10 subtypes), Group O (9 subtypes) and Group N (new virus), and HIV-2 (6 (A-F) subtypes), are the aetiologic agents of AIDS. It is a lymphocytotropic and neurotropic virus, which means it can be found in almost all body fluids and organs such as semen, vaginal and cervical secretions and blood. The exchange of these body fluids with an HIV infected individual can lead to transmission of HIV to another person (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:6).

HIV-1 is more easily transmissible than HIV-2 and contributes more heavily to the global pandemic, which poses substantial technical problems for vaccine development (Ramamurthy, 2004:27). HIV infects the body's immune system in particular cells called T lymphocytes (T cells) which protect against infection and other threats, as it "kills the infected and uninfected cells by several mechanisms and leads to depletion of CD4 cells" (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:24). With this depletion, opportunistic infections arise such as tuberculosis, meningitis, etc. and "the progression from seroconversion to the development of AIDS" (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:59).

Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) refers to a clinical definition where an individual's immune system has become progressively weak (Ramamurthy, 2004:27). AIDS was first reported in 1981 in San Francisco and New York on account of a clustering of diseases Pneumocystis Carinii Pneumonia and Kaposi's Sarcoma, amongst young, otherwise healthy adult homosexuals (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:16). Invariably, HIV is a precipitating factor that leads to AIDS, which "is a contagious, presently incurable disease that destroys the body's immune system. It is caused by HIV which is transmitted from one person to another primarily during sexual contact or through the sharing of intravenous drug needles and syringes" (Zastrow, 2008:487). The "infection with HIV irrespective of type (HIV-1 or HIV-2), subtype and route of infection leads to protracted disease and depletion of CD4 cells in most cases resulting in AIDS" (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:31). The length of time between initial infection of HIV and the appearance of AIDS symptoms is called the incubation period for the virus (Zastrow, 2008:489).

According to Mattheyse in a TB-HIV fact sheet of the South African Medical Research Council (MRC), (2007), in measuring the extent of the HIV and AIDS epidemic, prevalence and incidence are terms frequently used. Accordingly, prevalent cases have been defined as the people who are infected at a particular time, which include people who have been infected for some time, as well as those who are newly infected. Incident cases are the newly infected people only. In other words, prevalence gives the total number of all cases up till now (less those who have died), whereas incidence tells us how many recent infections have occurred.

The explosive spread of HIV and AIDS is known to have been caused by many factors such as migration; along with urbanisation it is also related to the socio-economic condition of the population where a large segment of the reproductive age group from backward areas migrate to more advanced states in search of employment (Baveja &

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Rewari, 2005:11). Violence against women: in settings where violence is regarded as a man's right, women are in a poor position to question their husbands about their extramarital encounters, negotiate condom use or refuse to have sex (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:10). Better educated people generally have greater access to information than those who are illiterate or uneducated, and they are more likely to make well informed decisions and act accordingly. They generally have better employment and greater access to money and other resources, which can help support healthier life styles (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:9).

The then President Thabo Mbeki at the opening of the 13th International AIDS Conference in Durban, South Africa, June 2000, suggested that the "cause of AIDS is extreme poverty" (Poku, 2005:3). Although Mbeki's 'temerity' was not acceptable, it does not rule out the fact that poverty has led many into undesirable activities, as insecure livelihoods, and lack of social protection can increase the likelihood of risky behaviour and undermine capacities to cope with the consequences of infection, creating downward spirals in both vulnerabilities of infection and its consequences (Ramamurthy, 2004:29). Gender inequality is a factor which makes women and girls particularly vulnerable because they are often compromised in their ability to negotiate safe sex or to ward-off unwanted sexual attention (Ramamurthy, 2004:28).

Marginalisation is described as the process whereby groups or often entire populations are forced beyond or on the periphery of the social and economic mainstream (White Paper for Social Welfare, Chapter 8, Section 1:62), groups who are made to live on the margins of society exist in every country although they differ from place to place, and what marginalised groups have in common is an increased vulnerability to HIV (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:10). Mother to child transmission (MTCT) is yet another risk of transmission from an HIV infected pregnant mother to her baby having been reported to be between 21 and 43%, where various maternal and fetal risk determinants have been reported which play a major role in Mother To Child Transmission of HIV (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:9), as HIV is a retrovirus transmitted primarily through sexual intercourse, but also through infected blood and from mother to newborn child (Poku, 2005:52).

This is to mention but a few of such factors, with the result being the high rate of persons infected and affected by the HIV and AIDS pandemic, "which respects no territorial boundaries, cast, creed, religion or age" (Baveja & Rewari, 2005:1). Since the discovery of HIV and AIDS, human existence globally, especially in the third world or developing countries, has been threatened. As earlier mentioned, from 1981 when this pandemic was first observed among homosexuals in the United States of America, it posed devastating effects on the socio-economic and man-power development of all nations of the world. "Across the African continent, HIV and AIDS is savagely cutting life expectancy, which is now about twenty less than it would have been without the epidemic, and below forty years in some countries" (Poku, 2005: 51).

2 Statement of the problem and purpose of the study

Clinton Alley (AIDS Guide 2009) asserts that South Africa continues to experience one of the most severe AIDS epidemics in the world. At the beginning of 2008, the number of infected persons living in the country was estimated to be in the region of 5.7 million, with almost 1000 AIDS-related deaths occurring every day. In the absence of an effective medication or vaccine that would decisively deal with this pandemic, and in the face of the changing profile of HIV, where new drugs can now slow disease progression and help people to live longer with an improved quality of life, these same new drugs (ARVs) are often very complicated and have debilitating side effects. "The success with which a person manages to live with the ongoing stress attached to HIV and AIDS impacts directly on his or her quality of life, with growing understanding of HIV and AIDS, according to Catalan *et al.* (2000) (in Coetzee & Spangenberg 2002:207); researchers and health care professionals recognise that survival time is not only a question of duration, but also of the quality of life." According to Friedland *et al.* (1996) (in Coetzee & Spangenberg 2002:207-208), "quality of life is the patient's appraisal of his or her overall physical, psychological and social functioning, which impacts directly on his or her morale, happiness and satisfaction." In to an article by Adam Currie (2009) titled 'Spirit of Hope' in (Leadership in HIV/AIDS 2009:47), he asserts that based on a 2007 South African National HIV survey of the nine provinces in South Africa, KwaZulu-Natal still reported the highest percentage of HIV and AIDS. Additionally, the United States Agency for international Development (USAID) has listed KwaZulu-Natal as "the world's highest infected region". The Zululand region is an area where about 35% – 40% of the population is HIV positive, with the North Coast area around Empangeni and Richards Bay the most severely affected. It has consistently led HIV prevalence rates, and according to an Amangwe Village fact sheet, "infection rates were increasing more rapidly there than anywhere else in the country".

Against this backdrop, our interest was kindled towards understanding the approaches being employed in rehabilitating the HIV and AIDS persons, in the absence of curative and non-effective preventive medicine, as stated by Campbell in Francis & Rimensberger (2005:87), "the forces shaping sexual behaviour and sexual health are far more

complex than individual rational decisions based on simple factual knowledge about health risks, and the availability of medical services”.

Based on the high prevalent rate of HIV/AIDS in South Africa, especially the KwaZulu-Natal province, the purpose of this study was to achieve the following objectives with a focus on recent experiences:

- To examine the actual cases of HIV and AIDS attended to by health caregivers in selected health settings, in the uMhlathuze municipality, between the years 2007-2008;
- To identify the various specific approaches employed by health caregivers in health settings, in the uMhlathuze municipality towards the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons they attend to;
- To evaluate the successes and failures of each approach employed by health care givers in the rehabilitation of infected persons within the study area, and
- To stimulate more research on HIV and AIDS, especially in the area of rehabilitation.

3 Literature review

Two theoretical frameworks were applied to this study. These were the Rational Choice-based Theoretical Approaches (Gehlert & Browne 2006:182); made up of the health belief model, the theory of reasoned action, and the theory of planned behavior (Gehlert & Browne 2006:183-185); the second approach is the Social Network-based Theoretical Approaches (Gehlert & Browne 2006:185); made up of the social action theory and the behavioural model of health services use (Gehlert & Browne 2006:187-188). Literature was reviewed on rehabilitation which is seen as being an essential part of a patient's care, as it is here that a person has the opportunity to fulfil his or her potential (Davis 2006:3). To achieve rehabilitation, there is a need to involve a group of professionals all working with the same purpose of meeting the individual's goals, which must involve the individual and their family, as rehabilitation is synonymous with teamwork since it cannot be achieved by one professional group alone (Davis 2006:13). Rehabilitation is not only focused on impairment and disability, but also on the individual's participation in the environment and society (Davis 2006:9), as it is basically client-centered and a link between health and social care.

Therefore, rehabilitation of persons with a physical or mental disability can be defined as restoration to the fullest physical, mental, social, vocational, and economic usefulness of which they are capable. To achieve this, a wide range of professionals provide rehabilitation services, such as physicians (medical doctors), nurses, clinical psychologists, physical therapists, psychiatrists, occupational therapists, recreational therapists, vocational counselors, speech therapists, hearing therapists, industrial arts teachers, social workers, special education teachers, and prosthetists. Most of these therapists focus on the physical functioning of the clients, whereas social workers focus primarily on their social functioning (Zastrow 2008:523-524).

A report by WHO (2005) states that the number of people with disabilities is increasing. Classes of such disabilities are from war injuries, landmines, HIV and AIDS, malnutrition, chronic diseases, substance abuse, accidents and environmental damage, population growth, medical advances that preserve and prolong life, are contributors to the increase in disability. These trends create an overwhelming demand for health and rehabilitation services. The report went further to state that to ensure equal opportunities and promotion of human rights for people with disabilities, especially the poor, WHO would adopt and implement three of the rules of the United Nations' Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities, issued as guidelines for health, education, work and social participation. These are:

Rule 2. Medical care – States should ensure the provision of effective medical care to persons with disabilities.

Rule 3. Rehabilitation – States should ensure the provision of rehabilitation services to persons with disabilities in order for them to reach and sustain their optimum level of independence and functioning.

Rule 4. Support services – States should ensure the development and supply of support services, including assistive devices for persons with disabilities, to assist them to increase their level of independence in their daily living and to exercise their rights (WHO 2005).

From this report, persons with HIV and AIDS have been identified amongst others by WHO as beneficiaries of rehabilitation services because they face challenges that demand a holistic approach towards their treatment, as complications resulting from HIV and AIDS radically alter the physiological and psychological well-being of HIV-infected persons. Treatment with highly active anti-retroviral therapy (HAART) allows HIV-infected persons to live longer, healthier, and more productive lives than was possible at the beginning of the HIV and AIDS pandemic. However, these life-extending antiretroviral medications often have side effects that adversely affect the quality of life. Medical researchers, such as the South African AIDS Vaccine Initiative (SAAVI) a lead programme of the Medical Research Council (MRC), are continually seeking more effective methods to treat infected persons; a vaccine that effectively prevents HIV infection is the ultimate goal (Dudgeon et al. 2004:81), although “according to medical establishment, there is currently neither a cure nor a vaccine to neutralise HIV” (Cloete 2007:56).

In a bid for the way forward, on the 13-14 May 2009, at the Richards Bay Hotel in Richards Bay, South Africa, a conference was organised by the University of Zululand, with the theme: The HIV and AIDS in Higher Education, 21st Century Challenges, with sub-themes: Building a supportive environment; HIV and AIDS Culture and Traditional Medicine; HIV and AIDS and gender; Media as a communication Strategy (Leadership in HIV & AIDS 2009:47). This conference was in line with the purposes of the National Strategic Plan (NSP) 2007 – 2011, one of which is the Operational Plan for Comprehensive HIV and AIDS Care, Management and Treatment for South Africa in providing comprehensive care and treatment for people living with HIV and AIDS as well as to facilitate the strengthening of the national health system, as well as other agencies working on HIV and AIDS in South Africa, within and outside the government (HIV & AIDS Strategic Plan 2007-2011:53). The goals of the National Strategic Plan 2007 – 2011 are summarised as:

Primary Goals

- Reduce the number of new infections by 50%
- Reduce the impact of HIV and AIDS in individuals, families, communities and societies, by expanding access to appropriate treatment, care and support to 80% of all people diagnosed with HIV.

The interventions that are needed to reach the aims of the National Strategic Plan are structured according to the following four priority areas:

- Prevention;
- Treatment, care and support;
- Human and legal rights: and
- Monitoring, research and surveillance (HIV & AIDS Strategic Plan 2007-2011:56).

The challenge posed by the HIV and AIDS epidemic and by the resurgence of tuberculosis and other medical conditions is how to further shape health care systems to respond to individual and local needs, which is not simply a matter of reacting to conditions but taking advantage of new or emerging therapies. In the context of HIV and AIDS, health systems are expected to develop additional services to HIV and AIDS, some of which are already in place, such as voluntary counselling and testing services (Poku 2005:128), as well as home based care. Although, as posited by Kaleeba *et al.* in Poku (2005:129), “home or community care is not about ‘decongestion of hospital beds’, but about the provision of a comprehensive range of medical, nursing, counselling, spiritual, as well as nutritional care, which must exist from hospital to home, i.e. continuum of care.”

Based on this, the social disability grant has been of much help to ease most of the burdens of infected persons and their family, as it has helped meet certain basic needs. However, “the social grants given to child families are also not enough, they do not cover all the costs like electricity, water and school fees. The grants only take the edge off hunger. Poverty exacerbates the pandemic. Families often demand help from a stricken member because the member is their ‘ATM’. If a patient’s viral load improves, relatives force that person to stop taking antiretroviral because they fear that the grant will be taken away” (Real 2008:29). In this vein, the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS infected persons is considered to be physical (physiotherapy, occupational therapy, speech therapy, audiology, complementary or alternative therapies, etc.), psychosocial (psychotherapy, social supports, etc.) and vocational rehabilitation (Canadian Working Group 2009 & Care for People 2008).

Relevance of social work in health care

Social Work in health care settings is practised in collaboration with medicine and also with public health programmes. It is the application of Social Work knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values to health care. Social Work addresses itself to illness brought about by or related to social and environmental stresses that result in failures in social functioning and social relationships. It intervenes with medicine and related professions in the study, diagnosis, and treatment of illness at the point where social, psychological, and environmental forces impinge on role effectiveness (Farley, Smith, & Boyle 2006:173).

Medical Social Work is shaped and guided by the attitude, beliefs, knowledge, and acceptable ways of doing things by professionals serving in health care institutions and by the philosophy and practice of modern medicine. It requires knowledge of illness and of the psychological and social impact of disease on the individual, the family, and the family interrelationships; it calls for the application adaptation of Social Work concepts, principles, and ideas to the special needs of hospital and clinic clientele (Farley, Smith, & Boyle 2006:176). Social Workers in health care services use the problem-solving method in assisting individuals, groups, and communities in solving personal and family health problems. Social Work is involved at various levels of prevention:

Primary - health education, encouraging immunisations, good mental health practice in families, prenatal and postnatal care;

Secondary - early screening programmes for detection of disease, checkups, encouraging treatment;

Tertiary or rehabilitation - preventing further deterioration of a disease or problem (Farley, Smith, & Boyle 2006:175).

The functions of Social Work in the hospital, according to Farley, Smith, & Boyle (2006:178-179), include:

1. Assess the patient's psychological and environmental strengths and weaknesses.
2. Collaborate with the team in the delivery of services to assure the maximum utilisation of the skill and knowledge of each team member.
3. Assist the family to cooperate with treatment and to support the patient's utilisation of medical services.
4. Identify with a cadre of other professionals to improve the services of the hospital by an interdisciplinary sharing of knowledge.
5. Serve as a broker of community services, thus providing linkages of patient need with appropriate resources.
6. Participate in the policy-making process.
7. Engage in research to assure a broadening of the knowledge base for successful practice

Roles of social work in rehabilitation

Rehabilitation for people with a physical or mental disability has been defined as restoration to the fullest physical, mental, social, vocational and economic usefulness of which they are capable. Services rendered are on vocational training, vocational counselling, psychological adjustment, medical and physical restoration, and job placement, although these are administered based on client's needs for such services (Zastrow 2008:523).

Social work in the medical or health setting is basically practiced in the hospital. With a wide variety of problems and situations encountered, social work in the health field is dynamic and requires continued study, as the dramatic expansion of new therapy approaches for medical conditions poses a challenge (Zastrow 2008:503). Social workers provide not only direct casework with patients and their families, but also group work with certain patients, consultation, and training of other professionals. They are also involved in planning and policy development within the hospital and with various health agencies (Zastrow 2008:501). One of the emerging fields of practice for medical social work is combating AIDS. Social workers are getting involved in advocating for programmes that would assist in reducing discrimination against persons with HIV and AIDS, they are also involved on counselling and in providing services in hospitals, residential treatment centers, nursing homes, and hospices to those that are positive. Social workers also serve as case managers for many people with AIDS. The case manager works with the affected persons, their loved ones, providers of care, and payers of health care expenses to make certain that pressing medical, financial, social, and other needs are met and to ensure that the most cost-effective care possible is provided.

In serving persons affected, the trend is to have more and more of the medical care delivered outside the hospital or nursing home, often at the person's home or in an outpatient clinic (Zastrow 2008:504). As cited by Kaleeba *et al.*, in Poku (2005:129), 'home or community care is not about "decongestion of hospital beds" but about the provision of a comprehensive range of medical, nursing, counselling, spiritual, as well as nutritional care which must exist from hospital to home, i.e. continuum of care'. Invariably, one of the most difficult tasks of doctors, nurses, social workers, and other allied professionals in the health field is to help a terminally ill patient deal with dying (Zastrow 2008:505). And to achieve this, social workers generally function as members of a team, and they need to learn to work with those in charge.

Medical treatment teams are increasingly dependent on social workers to attend to socio-psychological factors that are either contributing causes of illnesses or side effects of a medical condition that must be dealt with to facilitate recovery. As a member of a medical team, social workers have an important role in diagnosing and treating medical conditions. Social work in the health setting needs skills and knowledge about how to counsel people with a wide variety of medical conditions, which requires a high level of emotional maturity, a well-thought-out identity, and a high level of competency in counselling (Zastrow 2008:508). In rehabilitation services, social work services are various, such as counselling clients, counselling families, taking social histories, serving as case managers, serving as liaison between the family and the agency, being a broker, as well as doing discharge planning (Zastrow 2008:523-524).

4 Research design

Both qualitative and quantitative research design was used for this study, its aim was to ascertain the link that exists between the approaches employed by health care givers, the target of the research which is on rehabilitation and the incessant increase on the prevalence rate of HIV and AIDS infected persons. In the first instance, survey method was employed through the use of questionnaires and personal interview to purposely selected health workers. Our target population for the study comprised of health caregivers involved in the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons in three selected health centres within the uMhlathuze municipality, namely: The Richards Bay Clinic, eNseleni Community Health Centre and the Ngwelezana Hospital.

As far as sampling is concerned, we made use of the non-probability sampling technique through purposive (judgmental) sampling. Only health care workers directly involved in the rehabilitation services of HIV and AIDS infected persons were considered qualified for the study. Firstly, questionnaires were distributed to purposefully selected 50 respondents. These include: 11 from Richards Bay Clinic, 16 from eNseleni CHC and 23 from Ngwelezana Hospital. Among the 50 respondents who answered the questionnaires, 16 key informants were also interviewed from each profession available, 4 from Richards Bay Clinic, 5 from eNseleni CHC and 6 from Ngwelezana Hospital.

Ethical issues are very important in research. We took into cognisance the rights and privacy of participants, as well as their consented participation in the study was sought and granted. We made certain to observe all ethical considerations and conduct attached to a study considered to be of a very high sensitive nature after obtaining permission to conduct study from the concerned ethical bodies. Quantitative data were analysed by the use of closed items, which made use of tables and graphs. While for the qualitative data, open-ended items were analysed using the descriptive analysis method.

5 Results

The results are discussed under items 5.1 to 5.4, Table 1 and Figures 1 and 2 as represented below

5.1 Actual cases of HIV and AIDS attended to by health caregivers in selected health settings, within the uMhlathuze municipality.

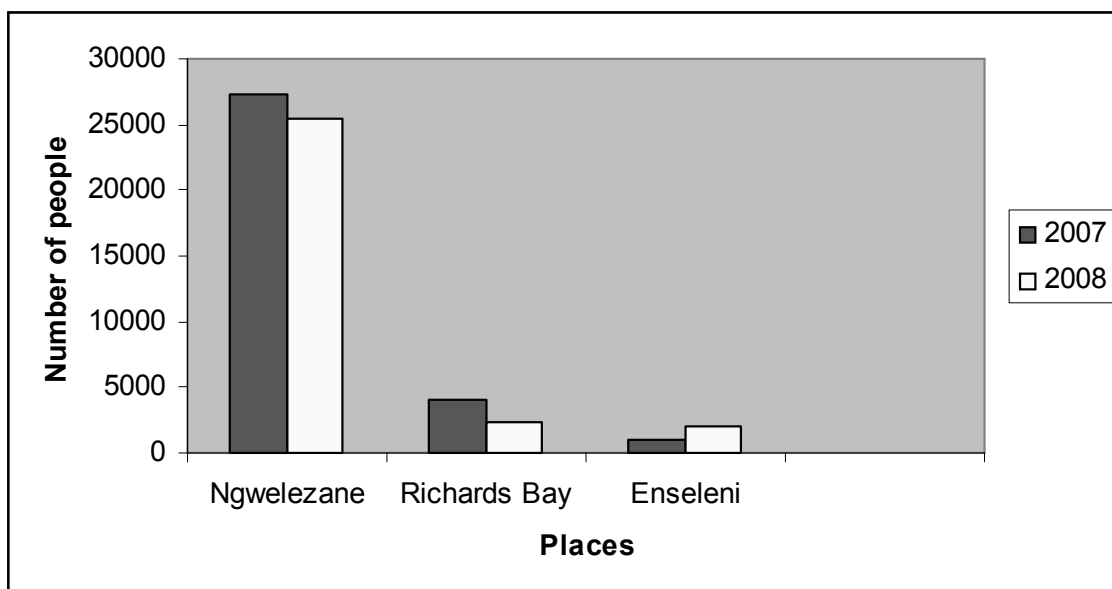


Figure 1 Number of cases attended to in 2007-2008

From the study conducted, health caregivers interviewed were able to supply us with the total number of infected cases attended to between the years 2007 and 2008. From Richards Bay Clinic, the total number of infected persons attended to were 4,400 in 2007 and 2,299 in 2008, from eNseleni Community Health Centre the total numbers were 1,065 for 2007 and 2,051 for 2008. While for Ngwelezana Hospital the total numbers of infected persons attended to were 27,277 for 2007 and 25,506 for 2008. Although there is a drop in the prevalent rate figure between 2007 and 2008 for Richards Bay Clinic and Ngwelezana Hospital, All three health centres agree that there is still an increase rate in the HIV/AIDS prevalence because more infected persons do not continue with their treatment when placed on referrals, or discontinue treatment so that when their CD4 count drops, they can still benefit from the social grant. In line with this, it was noted that the prevalence rate was still on the increase.

From this, we were able to find out that health workers in these health settings sacrificed a lot to give their humanitarian services, as Richards Bay Clinic is basically made up of nurses and lay-counsellors only, there are no medical doctors, social workers, dieticians, dentists, physiotherapists and the rest, and so they do have a huge challenge in service delivery. For example, when referrals are made for a patient, the patient most often does opt out of treatment because of the change in treatment environment, this is mostly due to the fear of not wanting their status to be exposed, which brings about a high standard of confidentiality to be upheld. From eNseleni CHC, the health team is fairly represented but

with only one social worker to attend to all patients, whether HIV and AIDS infected or not. There are no dieticians, speech therapist, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, and the rest. Ngwelezana Hospital is a much bigger hospital with basically all the health professionals, who are well represented to provide rehabilitative treatment to infected persons. Within the hospital, there is a special unit by the name Thembaletu Clinic where HIV and AIDS adults are treated.

Also, from the three health centres, despite the huge number of infected persons being attended to, they face a similar challenge of a shortage of skilled persons, as well as a lack of insufficient space to contain the number of infected persons they have to deal with especially on their clinic days. And so, even the issue of complete confidentiality cannot be adhered to, as infected persons can easily be identified on the long queues that are formed on each clinic days.

5.2 Specific approaches employed by health caregivers in health settings in the uMhlathuze municipality towards the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons they attend to

From information gathered, we were able to identify the various approaches employed in the holistic treatment of HIV and AIDS persons, as well as the involvement of significant others, such as the family, the community, the government and other stakeholders with keen interest on the HIV and AIDS issues. The various approaches mentioned by respondents were the drug therapy, the social group support, family involvement, nutritional support, vocational rehabilitation, physiotherapy, health education, psychotherapy, social disability grant, referrals, occupational therapy, speech therapy, community involvement, and counselling.

The findings of the study revealed that although health caregivers from Richards Bay Clinic were basically made up of professional nurses and lay counsellors, as well as being short staffed, they are faring very well with such approaches as counselling, drug therapy and health education. They also check the viral load of infected persons, and where there is a challenge, referrals are done. Findings from eNseleni CHC revealed that although health caregivers were made up of medical doctors, nurses, a social worker, and pharmacists, they were still very short staffed, even though they employed the peer support group and family/community support which have fared very well in boosting the morale of infected persons. Basically, the approaches employed here are the psycho-social, social/peer group support, nutritional support, vocational rehabilitation, counseling, health education, community involvement and the social disability grant, which is described as being episodic because it has to be reviewed after six months just as the HIV and AIDS is episodic.

Table 1 Presentation of approaches identified by health caregivers in the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons

Responses	Number of Respondents
Pharmacological approach (Drug Therapy)	25
Social group support	26
Nutritional support	15
Family therapy	17
Vocational rehabilitation	5
Physical rehabilitation	8
Health education	17
Psycho social rehabilitation	5
Social disability grant	15
Referral	10
Occupational therapy	2
Speech therapy	4
Community involvement	2
Counselling	4

While findings from Ngwelezana Hospital revealed that although health caregivers were made up of medical doctors, nurses, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, speech therapists, lay counsellors, and one dietician, others such as audiologists, dentists, pharmacists and infection control were also identified by the researcher as being involved in the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons, even though they were not a part of the study, yet this establishment is short staffed considering that there is only one dietician in the hospital, one full time

speech therapist and two part time. Even social workers are but a hand full. With the number of infected persons to be treated, most times the bulk of the work rests especially on the nurses, the lay counsellors and the social workers.

In using the speech therapy, language and feeding are dealt with in the sense that the muscle might get weak and with this weakness, the infected person becomes disabled which leads to speech and feeding disability. Physical rehabilitation is another relevant approach, as it improves the patient's movement to function properly, this is mostly utilised at the chronic stage. Nutritional support is also very relevant, as its role is basically to choose the right type of food or nutrition for the infected. Based on much intake of several drugs, i.e. the antiretroviral drugs, infected persons most often suffer depression, dementia, anxiety, et cetera, in reaction to this intake. Psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, et cetera, play a major role in treatment here, and also in bridging the gap about reintegrating infected persons back into the society.

5.3 The successes and failures of the approaches employed by health caregivers in the rehabilitation of infected persons within the study area

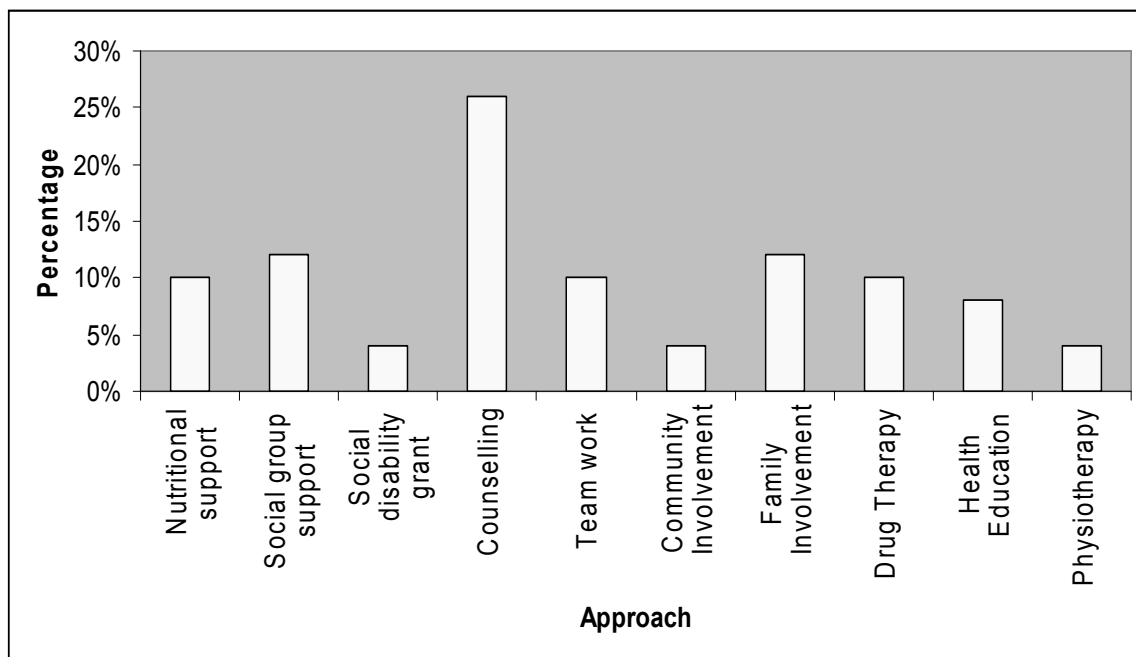


Figure 2 Presentation of approaches by percentage

From the study, 26% of respondents (13) ranked counselling to be the most effective and efficient approach utilised by health care workers, followed by the social group support which was indicated by 12% of the respondents (6), same as the family involvement which also had 12% respondents (6). Nutritional support, drug therapy and team work, each had 10% of respondents (5), health education was listed by 8% of respondents (4), while social disability grant, community involvement and physiotherapy each had 4% of respondents (2).

For successes, counselling (one-on-one) is very effective for patients, although time consuming. Social disability grant although effective as it offers financial relief and support to the very poor, is faulted as infected persons are prone to stop treatment when their CD4 count goes above 200 so as to continue benefiting from the disability grant which is episodic in nature, just as the HIV and AIDS disease. Family and community involvement were viewed to be very therapeutic from all three health centres and is much encouraged, though much is still expected from these approaches. Nutritional support is also effective as it provides food parcels for patients and relatives. Drug therapy although very effective, relies on other approaches for its efficacy. Physiotherapy was also listed as one of the effective approaches being utilized, although its usage depended on the patient's need or challenge at a particular time in the course of treatment. Health education and social group support plays a vital part in treatment, although the social group support has its pit-fall, as some patients refuse participation. Evidently, team work comes into play and has been viewed to be effective, but its pit-fall is the refusal of some patients to be referred, as well as insufficient professional health workers.

5.4 Further research on HIV and AIDS in the area of rehabilitation

From the interview conducted, each respondent was of the opinion that much still needed to be done on the HIV and AIDS issue, especially in the area of rehabilitation.

From the Richards Bay Clinic, the general notion was that as KZN still has the highest rate of prevalence, much still needs to be done, in consideration to culture and ignorance, despite information from the media and the general awareness. From Ngwelezana Hospital, respondents suggested that more researching needs to be done in the area of rehabilitating HIV and AIDS persons, due to the escalating increase in the number of persons infected; as poverty is a problem and education do not change people's attitude and behaviour as the most common means of getting infected is through heterosexual relationships. From eNseleni CHC, respondents agreed that researching on approaches utilised by health caregivers towards the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons, was very necessary, as the prevalence rate is alarmingly on the increase, either due to new infection or more awareness that would require prompt testing.

6 Conclusion and recommendations

According to Steiner *et al.* in Davis (2006: ix), rehabilitation is defined as a complex process which depends on interprofessional working and should be focused on the individual's goals. HIV and AIDS is a chronic ailment that is described as being episodic as it fluctuates between a state of wellness and illness, and "for intervention to be effective, the consideration of the cultural explorations and people's perceptions of illness, disease and well-being are as important as knowledge of biomedical facts" (Williams *et al.* 2000:131). Based on this, the Rational Choice-based and Social Network-based Theoretical Approaches were applied to this study, as presented in chapter two, towards the holistic treatment of HIV and AIDS persons in the society, as these approaches embrace every aspect of health care in treatment.

According to a World Health Organisation report (2000), governments have been urged to recognise that they are ultimately responsible for a country's health system though care may be provided by a combination of private, non-profit and public agencies, "governments must be the prime mover." Likewise, states are to be responsible for anticipating the needs associated with home-based, long-term care, which extend beyond the provision of health care services, and for ensuring that resources are available and are distributed efficiently and equitably (WHO 2002:2). This can only "be achieved in situations where all the care methodologies are delivered appropriately in adequate quality and quantity" (Baveja & Rewari 2004:253). This is not just providing care, but the dissemination of expertise or professional skills, starting from the health settings to the home, which will go along way to end child-headed families and the deprivation of family members not attaining their goals in life because of giving care to a sick family member, et cetera, as well as meeting with the millennium development goal for 2015 which is to reduce the rate by 50% (HIV & AIDS National Strategic Plan 2007-2011:56).

In conclusion, "any real society is a caregiving and care-receiving society, and must, therefore, discover ways of coping with these facts of human neediness and dependency that are compatible with the self-respect of the recipients and do not exploit the caregivers" (WHO 2002:44).

Based on the research findings as obtained from the study, recommendations were suggested such as; Continuous support from the government, by formulating and implementing policies that would effectively bridge the gap between strategies on achieving set goals and the achievement of such set goals; a community based rehabilitation unit or centre with outreach to be set up; rehabilitation teams to visit primary health clinics, homes, on daily basis to offer services; there is a crucial need for more qualified professional personnel to be employed in health centres, as well as a crucial need for the employment of more health social workers in the public health service; implementation of expertise to the various specialised fields is required, as well as in-training for health professionals to meet up with the ever changing and innovative trends of therapies towards the rehabilitation of HIV and AIDS persons; funding for community based rehabilitation is essential to the growth and development of such communities, improvement on community or home based rehabilitation is very necessary as the provision of continuous physical and psychological care and support from the community and government agencies serve to extend fruitful life as much as possible (Baveja & Rewari 2004:253); spiritual involvement and recreational approach is also of very high relevance; expansion of multidisciplinary team to involve complementary therapies; establishment of more male HIV and AIDS Care Programmes in all private and public health centres; there is requirement for adequate space in health centres for much more effective service delivery and the provision of incentives to health workers; improvement on home care education is very necessary, as professional expertise and home based care are of vital importance; there is further need for the provision and proper maintenance of hospital facilities and man-power, as well as the availability of such services, where and when needed.

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Bridging the transactional gap in Open Distance Learning (ODL): The case of the University of South Africa (Unisa)

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The aim of this paper is to map and audit the availability and use of e-learning resources by Communication Science students at the University of South Africa (UNISA), in order to ensure that they provide a seamless learning experience to bridge the transactional distance in its Open Distance Learning (ODL) context. The Communication Science students targeted were COMSA executives and Unisa Radio employees. To serve the goal of the paper the following specific objectives were formulated: to establish types of e-learning resources available at Unisa, and to identify the benefits of e-learning at Unisa. This study is informed by Michael Moore's Transactional Distance theory. This theory, which focuses on dialogue, transactional distance and telecommunication systems, has been widely applied in many similar studies.

A survey research design was used whereby questionnaires were administered to all COMSA executives and 50% of Unisa Radio student employees who were chosen using simple random sampling. The data gathered was analysed using thematic categorisation and tabulation and the findings were presented descriptively. The findings indicate that Unisa provides a variety of e-learning resources for its students. In addition, computers and the internet are most useful to students' studies. It should be mentioned that e-learning facilitates and opens avenues for effective teaching. This study focused only on the availability and use of e-learning by Communication Science students at Unisa. Therefore, it will be necessary for a broader study to be undertaken which will focus on academic and ICT staff as well as students chosen across the Unisa community.

Keywords: Open Distance Learning; E-learning; Online education; ICTs in teaching and learning, University of South Africa

I Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to map and audit the availability and use of e-learning resources by Communication Science students at Unisa, in order to ensure that they provide a seamless learning experience to bridge the transactional distance in its Open Distance Learning (ODL) context. The Communication Science students targeted were Communication Science Association (COMSA) executives and University of South Africa (UNISA) Radio employees. It should be noted that these groups were targeted because they were in better position to provide valuable data emanating from their active involvement at the Muckleneuk and Sunnyside campuses of UNISA, where the university's central activities originate.

The paper addresses the following research questions: What types of e-learning resources do students have access to? What are useful e-learning resources for students' studies? What are the benefits of using e-learning at Unisa? The respondents were further required to provide recommendations on how to enhance the use of e-learning at Unisa. This paper was based on the assumption that e-learning facilitates and opens avenues for effective teaching because of the potential it has for collapsing the transactional distance between students and the institution; amongst students; and providing easy access of course material regardless of time and location.

In their study, Sonnekus, Louw, and Wilson (2006) narrate that Unisa was founded in 1873 as a university college which offered courses to learners through correspondence. Subsequently, the university migrated through the various developmental stages of distance education and in January 2004 it was constituted as a comprehensive open distance learning university after amalgamation with two similar educational bodies. The 'new' Unisa effectively became the fifth largest mega Open Distance Learning education institution in the world, as it serves approximately 300 000 learners. It should be noted that Unisa has students from both rural and urban areas. As a result, this geographical difference impacts on the service delivery of Unisa, which is exacerbated by the mandate given to Higher Education Institutions to enrol 'a large and diverse student body'. Hence, not only is the infrastructure in these areas vastly different, but also the level of exposure to, and availability of modern technology which impacts on the level of technical support that can be given by the learner support system. Unisa's open learning policy promotes open access to courses, flexibility in learning provision, flexibility in methods and criteria of assessing learning process and achievement, and lifelong learning as propagated by the Commonwealth of Learning (Sonnekus, Louw, and Wilson, 2006).

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2 Literature review

This study is informed by Michael Moore's transactional distance theory, which includes dialogue, transactional distance and telecommunication systems. This theory has been widely applied in many similar studies. In his theory, Moore (1997) postulates that distance education is not simply a geographic separation of learners and teachers, but a concept describing the universe of teacher-learner relationships that exist when learners and instructors are separated by space and/or by time. This universe of relationships, he notes, can be ordered into a typology that is shaped around the most elementary constructs of the field – namely, the structure of instructional programmes, the interaction between learners and teachers, and the nature and degree of self-directness of the learner. Moore (1997) emphasises the concept of dialogue and asserts that dialogue is developed by teachers and learners in the course of the interactions that occur when one gives instruction and the others respond. The concepts of dialogue and interaction are very similar, and indeed are sometimes used synonymously. However, an important distinction can be made. The term 'dialogue' is used to describe an interaction or series of interactions having positive qualities that other interactions might not have. A dialogue is purposeful, constructive and valued by each party. Each party in a dialogue is a respectful and active participant; each is a contributor, and builds on the contributions of the other party or parties. There can be negative or neutral interactions; the term 'dialogue' is reserved for positive interactions, with value placed on the synergistic nature of the relationship of the parties involved. The direction of the dialogue in an educational relationship is towards the improved understanding of the student.

The transactional distance theory is relevant in this paper because of its reference in bridging the transactional gap in an ODL arena which is the primary objective of e-learning. In order for students to participate in e-learning, they require access to the resources which will enable both the lecturer and student to engage effectively in dialogue.

Distance education

A point worth mentioning is that higher education as a sector has embraced ICTs, which are seen not only as an impetus of change in traditional concepts of teaching and learning, but also as prime motivations behind the higher education change as the interplay of technological developments and socio-economic change, shape the processes of teaching and learning. The new ICTs have been recognised for the valuable role they can play in developing and improving distance education methods. Many of the advances in this area have been at the level of higher education, but innovative uses have also been introduced in some countries at primary and secondary levels and in the non-formal sector. The Internet obviously provides a wealth of opportunities for the development of distance teaching, with universities and teacher training institutions delivering entire study programmes through this medium. The convergence of telecommunications and video has made possible video teleconferencing which is much in use in higher education institutions in some developed countries. The new technologies make possible new methods and means of delivery for pre-service and in-service teacher education, as well as enabling the development of professional contacts for teachers through the Internet or other electronic networks. In theory, ICTs, through the possibilities they allow for distance learning, could greatly facilitate the provision of teacher education in situations where there are large numbers of untrained teachers, limited in-service training and few training institutions or teacher educators. But it is in these very deprived situations that the basic infrastructure for installing the necessary technologies is likely to be absent (Sloman, 2001 and Dunnett, 1994).

Towards open learning

The possibilities of almost unlimited access to information and global communication offered by ICTs give a new dimension to the concepts of open and lifelong learning. These new media provide a means of overcoming traditional barriers to education available within the limited framework of formal institutions. They can potentially offer individuals the opportunity to control and direct their learning and continually extend, renew and update their knowledge and skills by providing the possibility of easy access to new developments in all fields of knowledge. When put at the service of the wider community, particularly in educationally and socially disadvantaged areas, the new technologies can become catalysts for both individual and collective development and change (Sloman, 2001 and Dunnett, 1994).

3 Methodology

A survey research design was used whereby questionnaires were administered to all COMSA executives (10; 100%) and one hundred (100;50%) of Unisa Radio student employees who were chosen using simple random sampling by taking 50% of 200 students. The study focused on COMSA executives and Unisa Radio employees because these groups were able to provide valuable data emanating from their active involvement at the Muckleneuk and Sunnyside campuses, where the hub of the university's activities originate. The questionnaire sought information pertaining to personal characteristics of the respondents, student access to e-learning facilities, the use of *myUnisa* as an e-learning resource and recommendations to improve the use of e-learning at the university. The data collected was analysed through thematic categorisation and tabulation, and the findings were presented descriptively.

4 Results and Discussions

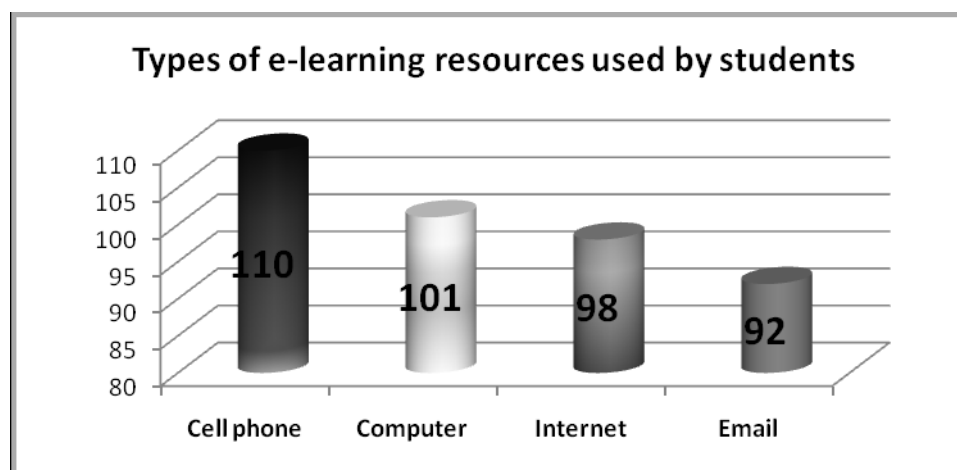
The results are discussed under sections 4.1 to 4.5.

4.1 Demographic profile of respondents

All the respondents (110; 100%) were BA: Communication Science students from UNISA. There was a male dominance (75%), with most of the respondents under the age of 29 (94.2%).

4.2 Types of e-learning resources used by Unisa students

Figure 1 below provides responses on the question “Which of the following e-learning resources do you use for your studies? The respondents were provided with a list of options to choose from and asked to respond as was applicable to their situations and also asked to provide those not listed as the figure below illustrates.



**Figure represents multiple responses*

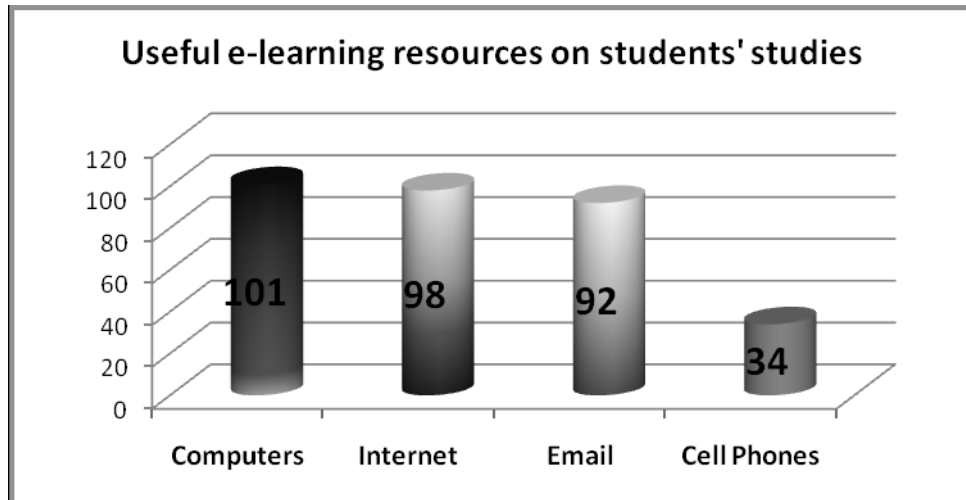
Figure 1 Types of e-learning resources used by Unisa students (N=110)

When asked to comment on the types of e-learning resources they use for their studies, all the respondents (110; 100%) indicated that they use cell phones, while also a significant number (101; 92%) indicated that they use computers. An examination of data further shows that 98 (89%) of the students use the Internet for their studies, while 92 (87%) use e-mails. It is important to note that all students use cell phones for their studies to check their results online, to receive notifications on their assignments they have submitted, etc. This could be attributed to the fact that all students have cell phones. Unisa sends information to its students to their cell phones pertaining to the submission of assignments, results, examination dates, etc. In distance learning, the students control the learning environment because they can decide when and where to learn and how long to take over a course. Information technology can facilitate the whole process.

In addition, the student can send assignments and questions to the lecturer using e-mail and the lecturer can also respond using e-mail. Furthermore, an institution may put the courses on a web site that is password protected. A student either reads the coursework directly on the Internet or downloads it from the Internet. This has obvious cost and administrative savings for the institution. It also means that the institution can enrol students from all over the world. Moreover, registration and payment of fees can also be done on-line (Pawar, 2008, and Pakhare, 2007). This confirms what the theory informing this study emphasises that in order for e-learning to be effective each party in a dialogue is a respectful and active participant; each is a contributor, and builds on the contributions of the other party or parties (Moore, 1997). Thus, it is important for students to have access to e-learning so that they can communicate with their lecturers as the results above indicate.

4.3 Useful e-learning resources on students' studies

The study sought to establish e-learning resources that are more useful in students' studies. In this connection, respondents were therefore provided with a list of possible e-learning resources to choose from as was applicable to their situations. Figure 2 below summarises responses



**Figure represents multiple responses*

Figure 2 Useful e-learning resources on students' studies (N=110)

When asked to comment on useful e-learning resources, the majority of respondents (101; 92%) indicated that computers are useful e-learning resource. Of the respondents, 98(89%) felt that the Internet is useful, while 92(84%) said it is email. Those who said cell phones are useful were the minority (34; 31%). Kumar (2009) concurs with these results by observing that education system is revolutionised with the help of the internet. Consequently, new learners do not have to solely depend on teachers. Students can search and access the required study material from the internet with help of search engine like Google, Yahoo to name a few. For example, at the University of South Africa it is where the internet is playing a major role in teaching and learning. It should be noted that with the help of the Internet Unisa has enrolled students from all over the world. It is also true that an electronic learning tool popularly known as myUnisa cannot function without the Internet.

In item 4.1, figure 1, students were required to indicate e-learning resources they use for their studies. The study findings show that all the respondents (110; 100%) use cell phones for their studies. However, it is worth mentioning that although all of them use cell phone, but it does not necessarily mean that cell phones are effective. This is based on the findings where the minority (34, 31%) indicated that cell phones are useful in their studies, hence in item 4.1 all the respondents indicated that they use cell phones in their studies.

4.4 Benefits of e-learning

One of the objectives of the paper was to identify the benefits of e-learning on Unisa students. Respondents were therefore required to deliberate on the benefits offered by e-learning resources at Unisa. Respondents generally noted that:

- I have benefited immensely because interaction with fellow students exposed me to relevant information pertaining to the content of the modules through myUnisa and emails.
- E-learning offers a number of advantages because it enables me to access large volumes of information anytime.
- I can now use the Internet and electronic mails to interact with people outside my studies.
- I have definitely benefited because I am able to send assignments to my lecturers speedily.
- It has improved the way we do our work and the way we communicate, thus, I can communicate with my peers abroad.
- I interact regularly with fellow students and lecturers and the response rate is very fast.
- The advantage of using e-learning resources such as myUnisa and emails is that it is very fast. This is especially useful when students are submitting their assignments. When students submit their assignments through the post it takes an extra-ordinary long time to process and to receive an SMS confirming that the assignment has been received.
- You can access the latest information thereby keeping abreast of global trends.
- I can access my marks and other relevant information pertinent to my studies using myUnisa.
- Accessing computers and the Internet from schools is much better than using these resources at the Internet café.

It is worth noting that there are many significant advantages for students who learn online. In his study James (2007) outlines advantages of e-learning which include convenience and portability; cost and selection; flexibility; retention; greater collaboration and global opportunities. Sharing similar sentiments the White Paper (Republic of South Africa, 2004) indicates that the use of technology or e-learning encourages collaborative work amongst learners, as well as learner-centred and active learning.

One of the most important advantages of e-learning is the interaction and engagement that students are exposed to. Thus, the success of one student encourages others. This is consistent with the principle that learning is also a social experience and that all the elements that comprise the learning experience are important and will also contribute in motivating students to engage with the learning material. These views are shared by Pawar (2008) and Pakhare (2007) who observe that the Internet contains enormous quantities of information. Some of this is excellent, some very poor and much incorrect. It should be noted that to access information on the Internet, a student makes use of a search engine such as Google. Feeding in a number of key words can result in a list of many thousands of sites being displayed. Each of these is represented by a hyperlink. This is a link to another site. When you click on a hyperlink, you are immediately taken to the site. In strengthening the aforementioned views James (2007) and Kruse (2004) state that instructional design for e-Learning has been perfected and refined over many years using established teaching principles, with many benefits to students. As a result, colleges, universities, businesses, and organisations worldwide now offer their students fully accredited online degree, vocational, and continuing education programs in abundance.

4.5 Recommendations to improve the use of e-learning resources at Unisa

The respondents were required to indicate contextual conditions that need to be adapted in order to enhance the use of e-learning resources at Unisa. The respondents generally felt that:

- Lecturers should see students at least twice a week in order to increase the interaction to discuss content and guide and encourage students on how to use e-learning effectively.
- All computer labs at Unisa should have internet connection because some of the students only use myUnisa in order to send their work and access my Unisa.
- Unisa must promote e-learning resources and make sure that students have internet access in order to partake effectively with these useful tools and services.
- Unisa should build a technology centre with e-learning resources in each region where students have access in order to progress smoothly.
- Unisa should provide faster computers and increase internet bandwidth.
- Build more computer labs with faster computers and the internet so that we do not wait for long hours for space to open.

5 Conclusion

The paper set out to map and audit the availability and use of e-learning resources by Communication Science students at Unisa, in order to ensure that they provide a seamless learning experience to bridge the transactional distance in its ODL context. This study is informed by Michael Moore's Transactional Distance theory, which includes dialogue, transactional distance and telecommunication systems. The findings indicate that e-learning resources such as the internet and computers are very useful on students' studies. Education system is revolutionised with the help of the internet. The emergence of e-learning has created a new platform for the delivery of training and the impact of this technology will create opportunities that will enhance and transform the learning experience for both student and teacher. The application of e-learning has grown considerably in recent years and has triggered a great deal of interest in this age of rapid technological progress, transforming "the very nature" of higher education. It should be mentioned that e-learning facilitates and opens avenues for effective teaching. This is because of the potential it has for collapsing the transactional distance between students and the institution; interaction between students and between students and lecturers and above all students can view their course material regardless of time and location. We have noted the limitations of this study in that it focused only on the availability and use of e-learning by Communication Science students at Unisa. A further study to be undertaken should focus on academic and ICT staff as well as students chosen across the Unisa community. The results of this study could have been affected by the views and dominant complaint nature of students.

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