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**An investigation into the implications of  
formally accrediting training offered by  
non-governmental organisations:  
a case study approach.**

By

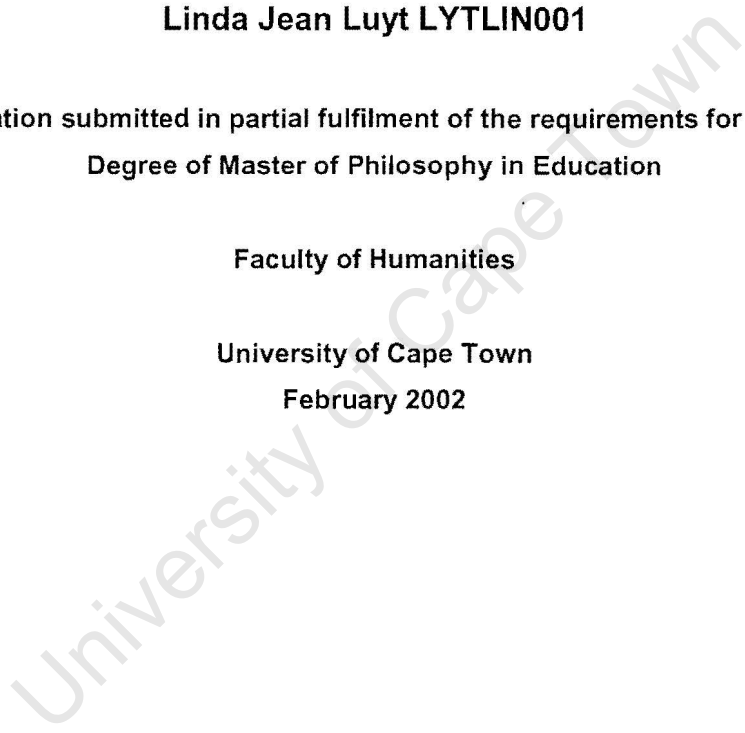
Linda Jean Luyt LYTLIN001

A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the  
Degree of Master of Philosophy in Education

Faculty of Humanities

University of Cape Town

February 2002



**DECLARATION**

This work has not been previously submitted in whole or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

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University of Cape Town

## ACRONYMS

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| ABET   | Adult Basic Education and Training             |
| AVTP   | Australian Vocational Training Programme       |
| CBO    | Community based organisation                   |
| COSATU | Congress of South African Trade Unions         |
| ELCD   | Economic Literacy and Community Development    |
| ELCT   | Economic Literacy and Community Transformation |
| ETD    | Education, Training and Development            |
| ETQA   | Education and Training Quality Assurance body  |
| FET    | Further Education and Training                 |
| GEAR   | Growth, employment and redistribution          |
| GET    | General Education and Training                 |
| HET    | Higher Education and Training                  |
| IDP    | Integrated Development Plans                   |
| INSET  | In-service Education and Training              |
| NGO    | Non-governmental organisation                  |
| NQF    | National Qualifications Framework              |
| NSB    | National Standards Body                        |
| NUM    | National Union of Mineworkers                  |
| RDP    | Reconstruction and Development Programme       |
| RPL    | Recognition of Prior Learning                  |
| SAQA   | South African Qualifications Authority         |
| SETA   | Sector Education and Training Authority        |
| SGB    | Standards Generating Body                      |

## ABSTRACT

In this study, the implications of formalising previously non-formal NGO training were investigated. The literature suggested that there might be sociological, pedagogical and epistemological issues that would impact on the process. The sociological concerns centred on how formalisation might impact on the social purpose of education and training. The epistemological issues involved concerns about which knowledge gets privileged under formalisation and the question of the transferability of different types of knowledge. The pedagogical concerns focused on what impact formalisation might have on curriculum and methodology. The research in this study operated within a qualitative research paradigm, and used a multiple case study approach. The training courses that are offered in two non-governmental organisations were used as the cases. Data was gathered by means of open-ended interviews with key informants and the analysis of pertinent documents for each organisation. The questions for the interviews were designed, and the analysis of data was done, using categories outlined in a model of Education, Training and Development (ETD) Practices designed by the ETD Practices project. The results indicated that in all the categories investigated slight changes are noticeable. The organisational identity of each organisation had shifted slightly, to become more academic and more business-like respectively. The grounding principles of training in each case remained primarily the same, continuing to focus primarily on the achievement of the social aim of the organisation. However each organisation has become slightly more focussed on academic progression. In both cases the requirements for selecting learners have become more stringent in accordance with the requirements of the accrediting body. The roles and expectations of the educators have also changed, with more focus on academic qualifications in one case and increased administrative responsibility in both. The pedagogy varied, with many of the features of the non-formal methods still present, but with a slight shift from a competence based pedagogy to a performance-based pedagogy. The curriculum includes more learning areas than before formalisation, and a greater vocational emphasis. Although the organisations strive to continue to fulfil their organisational aims through

their training and believe that accreditation has improved the quality of the training, these shifts represent unintended consequences which may undermine the purpose of the organisations. The research uncovered new areas of concern, namely the changing expectations placed on the educators and changing organisational management structures, which were not mentioned in the literature.

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# CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

This study is an investigation into the implications of formalising previously non-formal training offered by non-governmental organisations (NGOs). In this chapter I will outline the context and background to this question. I will briefly outline the history and aims of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), which are the two structures that are driving the formalisation process. I will outline a brief history of issues facing NGOs since the mid 1990s and define non-formal education and training. Then I will introduce my research question in the context of these new developments.

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE NQF AND SAQA

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) are two government structures, which have had a major impact on all education and training provision since their implementation in 1995. Their implementation affects not only education provided in formal, government-controlled institutions, but exerts pressure on the entire range of workplace training and non-formal, non-governmental organisation (NGO) education and training.

### 1.1.1 The National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

The South African Education and Training White Paper (1995) and the South African Qualifications Authority Act (1995) established the legal framework for the development and implementation of the National Qualification Framework (NQF). The South Africa Qualifications Authority (SAQA) was set up to oversee the development and the implementation of the NQF in 1995 (SAQA, n.d.).

The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is the framework on which records of learner achievement are registered to enable national recognition of acquired skills and knowledge, thereby ensuring an integrated system that encourages life-long learning (SAQA, n.d.).

The qualifications and unit standards, of which they are made up, all stipulate what the learner must be able to **know**, **do**, and **understand** to achieve the qualification (COSATU, 2000). This move to competency-and outcomes-based approaches and an integrated approach to education and training corresponds with international trends (Christie, 1995). In particular, the government was directly influenced by Australian and New Zealand debates in devising a competency-based education and training system (Christie, 1995; Cooper, 1998).

The new system is comprised of three broad education and training bands. The General Education and Training (GET) band encompasses four Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) levels and formal schooling below standard 8 (grade 10). This is all level one of the NQF. The Further Education and Training (FET) band is made up of levels two, three and four of the NQF and certificates for this level can be offered at schools, workplaces, industry training boards and colleges. The Higher Education and Training (HET) band covers level 5 to level 8. Level 5 includes occupational certificates and level 8 is equivalent to doctorates and further research degrees (Samson, 1999: 5).

The objectives of the NQF as outlined in the SAQA Act No.58 of 1995 are:

- To create an integrated national framework for learning achievements;
- To facilitate access to, and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths;
- To enhance the quality of education and training;
- To accelerate the redress of past unfair discrimination in education, training and employment opportunities;
- To contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the nation at large (SAQA, n.d.).

Thus, in general the aims of the new education and training strategy are twofold. One of the tasks of the post-apartheid government is to transform the legacy of apartheid education and thus it is geared towards social justice, redress and empowerment. The other task is focused on human resource development to equip South Africans to participate in the global economy (Christie, 1995; Cooper, 1998; Muller, 2000).

Samson (1999) argues that the education and training systems in the apartheid era both served to reproduce racism and sexism and served as sites of "contestation and struggle" (Samson, 1999: 1). Reform of such systems was seen as a key function of the post apartheid government. The NQF policy is designed to eradicate hierarchical divisions between education and training, allow groups which have been excluded from formal training to receive accreditation for their prior learning, and facilitate movement from non-formal education and training into formal education. It aims to create a post-apartheid education system that provides redress to previously disadvantaged groups (Samson, 1999: 5).

One of the ways of integrating the previously fragmented system is to advocate outcomes-based education, which focuses on the "outcomes" of education as opposed to the "inputs" (Samson,

1999). Focussing on “outcomes” as opposed to “inputs” facilitates the recognition of learning regardless of context in which learning was acquired. In this way the NQF assumes the equivalence of all knowledge and learning and this enables it to develop one articulated system, which brings together different learning contexts and integrates education and training (Cooper, 1998). This system is presumed to facilitate lifelong education and training – emphasising a broad education foundation and flexible transferable skills (Cooper, 1998). It aims to promote horizontal mobility between contexts, vertical mobility for all learners, credit accumulation and transfer, as well as recognition and accreditation of learning, irrespective of where it takes place by means of recognition of prior learning (Cooper, 1998; Christie, 1995).

In addition, improving education and training levels, especially for workers, is seen an important strategy for both equity and economic development (Christie, 1995; Cooper, 1998). It is also important to train highly skilled workers who will be familiar with the rapidly changing technology, which facilitates participation in a global economy. Resources to engage in development need to be generated by participating in this economy successfully.

### **1.1.2 The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)**

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) is the institution that has been created as the mechanism for the design and implementation of the NQF. This comprises two parallel processes i.e. Standards Setting and Quality Assurance. Standards setting is conducted by National Standards Bodies (NSBs), who actually register the qualifications and standards and the Standards Generating Bodies (SGBs), while quality assurance is conducted by the Education and Training Quality Assurance bodies (ETQAs) by checking the quality of the learning programmes offered (SAQA, n.d.; COSATU, 2000).

In the NQF, all learning is organised into twelve fields. SAQA has established twelve NSBs, one for each organising field. All learning related to Education, Training and Development, including that of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) falls under NSB 05 (SAQA, n.d.).

The functions of ETQAs include accrediting providers; promoting quality provision of training; monitoring provision; evaluating assessment the certification of learners. ETQAs do not set standards; they assure the quality delivery and assessment of registered standards and qualifications.

A Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) is a body established under the Skills Development Act (RSA, 1998c). They are responsible for developing strategic plans in a particular economic sector to ensure that education and training meet the needs of the economy,

society and the individual. SETAs can also check the quality of education and training programmes provided in various sectors, and thus can function as ETQAs within the economic sector (SAQA, n.d.; COSATU, 2000).

In seeking accreditation from ETQAs, providers will have to fulfil the following criteria:

- Be registered as a provider in terms of applicable legislation;
- Have a quality management system;
- Be able to develop, deliver and evaluate learning programmes which culminate in specified NQF qualifications or standards;
- Have the necessary financial, administrative and physical resources;
- Have policies for staff selection, appraisal and development; for learner entry, guidance and support systems; for the management of off-site practical or work-site components; for the management of assessment;
- Have necessary reporting procedures;
- Have the ability to achieve the desired outcomes using available resources and procedures (SAQA, n.d.).

Therefore a non-governmental organisation (NGO) which wants to link its education and training with the NQF levels will have to comply with all these requirements before it will be accredited by the relevant ETQA.

## **1.2 NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS SINCE THE MID 90s**

The context in which NGOs operate, has shifted significantly since, and as a result of, the first democratic election in South Africa in 1994. The way the government, business and donors are seen by broader society, including NGOs has changed. This impacts on the role of NGOs and the demands placed on NGOs.

Primarily there is a change in the perception of the role that NGOs can most usefully play in South Africa. In particular, CDRA (1996) notes that since the transition in South Africa, we have seen the shift in organisational priorities from resistance to development.

The role of the government is seen in a significantly different way since it achieved legitimacy by being democratically elected. Rather than being seen as actively blocking the path to social transformation, it is tasked with the creation of an enabling environment, which will facilitate the development of both the nation and the citizenry. Since 1994 the state has started laying claim to the right to stipulate the strategies and activities of the development sector.

Business gains legitimacy by meeting the direct needs of consumers and facilitating the economic processes leading to employment, prosperity and surplus.

These processes undermine the development role of NGOs. On the one hand, the development agenda is increasingly not set by NGOs, while on the other hand the legitimacy and use-value of NGOs to society and the development effort is being assessed by the same criteria used by government and business to assess their own performance (CDRA, 1996: 4). In this way the idea that NGOs bring something particular (which government and business do not and cannot bring) is increasingly ignored. Although, NGOs must be judged on their performance, they cannot be judged by the same criteria as government or business. By judging themselves against these criteria, which ignore significant features central to the work of NGOs and focus solely on 'delivery', NGOs find themselves wanting (CDRA, 1996).

NGOs must be judged in relation to the increasing ability of marginalised communities to build themselves into viable entities, which can challenge the inequality in society. The NGO function is not about economics, but rather about the development of people, the manifestation of the social good, by the redress of imbalances and the restitution of the marginalised (CDRA, 1996). CDRA (1996) argues that in failing to see that they have something in particular to offer, they fail to seek and uncover their unique and inherent value as value-driven organisations. For this reason NGOs must focus on a particular way of being, working on the basis of principle as opposed to expedience, to achieve their development aims. This requires independence from the agendas of political and corporate interests, which NGOs need to be free to challenge.

The relationship between NGOs and their funders also impacts on the work of the NGO. There is an awareness in the development sector that the giving and receiving of development aid is fraught with complexity and unintended outcomes that both frustrate the donor and the recipient. Although, the central value of giving cannot be questioned, it is increasingly being recognised that the process of giving can result in domination, disempowerment and ultimately the dependency of the recipients and the reinforcing of the position of the giver (CDRA, 1996).

Funders have started arguing that funding previously given to NGOs was given on the basis of their opposition to an illegitimate government. However, since the government is now democratically elected, this funding can be routed directly to the government to fulfil their responsibility of the development of the country. This results in competition between NGOs for decreasing funder money. Funders also increasingly offer resistance to funding "core costs" and the professional development of staff (John, Aithison and Butler, 1996).

NGOs are also increasingly under pressure to find ways to make the users of their services pay for what they receive. This may undermine the work that organisations do or may simply be impossible because of the poverty of the people that are targeted by NGOs (John, Aithison and Butler, 1996).

NGOs have by no means been exempt from the legacy of apartheid, which systematically empowered white people and particularly men. This racist and sexist legacy is being contested on a variety of terrains and NGO's also have to confront issues of race and gender (John, Aithison and Butler, 1996).

Significant changes in the South African context are providing both opportunities and threats to NGOs. The success or failure of NGOs to operate within these new conditions to a great extent determines their survival. The demands that NGO are facing regarding new ways of proving their 'delivery' and the power of the government to stipulate development goals, has made it seem increasingly appropriate to co-operate with the development goals identified by government. In particular NGOs are finding it increasingly difficult to resist the pressure to bring their non-formal education and training in line with the National Qualifications Framework.

### **1.3 DEFINING NON FORMAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING**

My research focuses on non-formal education and training offered by NGOs. The terminology used in the field of adult education is quite complicated, being used by different people at different times to refer to different kinds of education and training. In my thesis I will use a definition informal, non-formal and formal education provision that was outlined by Miller and Morphet (1991). They define *informal* level as the implicit, unplanned learning activity in which we all engage continuously (Miller and Morphet, 1991: pp 29). Formal and non-formal education are different from that in that they are planned and directed activities.

The difference between formal and non-formal education respectively is dependent on the purposes, timing, contents and delivery system. *Formal* education, for example schooling and tertiary education is long-term, general and credential based. It is seen as preparatory and is often full time. The content of formal education tends to be input centred, standardised and academic. In formal education the clientele is determined by the entry requirements. The delivery system is institution based, rigidly structured and tends to be isolated. It is teacher centred and resource intensive. Formal education is externally controlled and hierarchical (Miller and Morphet, 1991: pp 36 - 39).

In contrast *non-formal* education, for example that provided by NGOs and community based organisations, is short term and specific, not based on credits, recurrent and part-time. The content for non-formal education is output centred, individualised and practical. The clientele determines the entry requirements of non-formal education. The delivery system is environment based, community related, flexibly structured and learner centred and resource saving. Non-formal education is self governing and democratic (Miller and Morphet, 1991: pp 36 - 39).

## 1.4 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH QUESTION

My interest in the impacts of formal accreditation on previously non-formal NGO training stems from my position as a development worker in an NGO offering non-formal training. The organisation was increasingly under pressure to accredit its training via SAQA. As the manager of the training department, I was expected to investigate what this might mean for our organisation. I felt that the work that my organisation was doing had inherent value. In my search for clarity on what it would mean for my organisation, I found most people I spoke to giving me advice on practical issues (for example, which SGB would represent our organisation, how to get hold of them, how to write our training programmes in outcomes based forms). The emphasis was on how to get "up to speed" as efficiently as possible. There seemed to be a strong underlying assumption, that formalising and accrediting training was the 'only way to go'. Nowhere did I hear any criticisms of the process or of the assumptions underpinning the process.

I found this enthusiasm, and sometimes even evangelical attitude, surprising and concerning. NGOs traditionally see themselves as independent critical structures that have the needs of their constituency primarily at heart. I was concerned about what impact formalisation would have on the 'feel' and the social impact of the training that we offered.

Although it was impossible to investigate the hypothetical question of what the implications would be for my organisation, I decided to see what the effects of formalising their education and training had been for organisations that had progressed further along the path than us. In as far as the question no longer related to my own organisation, the emphasis had to become a little more theoretical and broad. Thus I chose the question:

An investigation into the implications of formally accrediting training offered by non-governmental organisations: a case study approach.

I hoped that the findings of this study could be used to give organisations some insight into what changes as a result of the formalisation and accreditation process. Each organisation would then

be in a better position to weigh up the consequences for their own organisation and make a decision about how best to proceed.

## 1.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have outlined the two structures that have significant impact on the provision of education and training. They are the National Qualifications Framework, which is a framework on which is designed to accommodate the registration of all learning achievements, and the South African Qualifications Authority, which is a government body created to develop and implement the NQF. I have also outlined the changing context in which non-governmental organisations (NGOs) operate and the shifting demands on them. I have argued that these factors make it increasingly difficult for NGOs to ignore the demands that they register their education and training provision by means of the processes stipulated by the NQF and SAQA. It is in this context that my research question arose. As a staff member of an NGO investigating registering its non-formal training on the NQF, I was interested in what the impact of such formalisation would have on our training.

In **Chapter two** I outline the literature that informed my research question and empirical research that that has been done in related fields. The literature was summarised in three sections, namely sociological, epistemological and pedagogical, which correspond to three different types of concern raised by the authors.

**Chapter three** covers the methodology that was used in this research. It includes a justification for the use of qualitative research paradigm and the case study approach in particular. It describes the process of the data collection and analysis of data in this research and deals with issues of possible shortcomings of the research methods, and what I did to overcome these.

**Chapter four** outlines the results of my research and includes an initial level of analysis of these results.

**Chapter five** provides a discussion and conclusion. It analyses the results that were reported in Chapter four according to the three categories of concerns outlined by the literature and empirical research.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter I will be reviewing the literature and research in the field which relate to the implications of the formalisation of previously non-formal training in response to the introduction of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) in South Africa. With the introduction of a new system it is inevitable that there will be changes in a range of aspects of the educational process. Harris (2000) comments that there seems to be a general assumption in respect of South Africa's NQF that all that went before is bad and what comes after is good. However a search of the academic literature has unearthed almost exclusively negative views. Different authors have written from different perspectives, focussing on different aspects of the predicted changes, using different disciplinary languages and making their points in different ways. These will be summarised in terms of sociological concerns, epistemological concerns and pedagogical concerns.

The sociological aspect covers concerns over the social forces driving the NQF. It considers the aims of the NQF and whose interests it serves. In this way it is concerned with issues of equity and redress and the balancing the government's responsibility to its citizens for social and educational redress and the need for South Africa to participate beneficially in the global economy. It also includes feminist critiques.

The epistemological concerns relate to who defines what counts as knowledge, equivalence and transfer of different types of knowledge and a critique of the positivist conception of knowledge.

Debates in the field of pedagogy centre on changes in the way teaching and learning happens and the implications of changes in teaching practice. The pedagogical concerns outline the incompatibility of the two distinct pedagogical modes, competence pedagogy and performance pedagogy, which represent the manifestation of the two distinct social aims of the NQF.

The research in the field gives an account of studies of the implications of formalisation for ABET, and for shifts in trade union education and formalisation of education and training in the United Kingdom.

### 2.1 SOCIOLOGICAL CONCERNS AROUND THE NQF

The first area of debate that I will be addressing relates directly to the social forces driving the NQF. This section will look at three aspects (1) the purpose of education and whose interests are

served by it (2) feminist critiques and (3) the limitation of using RPL as the only mechanism for redress. In all three sections I will argue that unless attention is specifically given to these questions both in theory and in practice, the dominant agenda will prevail. In particular in section 2.2.1, I will show that economic imperatives will dominate demands for social equity. In section 2.2.2, I will argue that men and other dominant groups are advantaged by the way knowledge is constructed and by practical implementation of training initiatives. And in section 2.2.3 I point out the limitations of RPL as a mechanism to bring about social redress. Unless implementation is given particular thought, RPL could serve to entrench inequality.

### **2.1.1 The purpose of education and whose interests are served**

All the literature about the aims of the NQF place emphasis on two aspects. On the one hand there is the need, in post-apartheid South Africa, to facilitate redress to those disadvantaged by apartheid and apartheid education. Unterhalter (1997) outlines how, in contrast to other international models, the NQF is explicitly concerned with the aims of equity and social justice and the aim to democratise education. On the other hand there is the need to develop a successful economy which is able to compete in the global economy (SAQA, 1995; Christie, 1995; Cooper, 1998; Muller, 2000).

Muller (2000) argues that both political and economic aims are worth pursuing at this point in history. However since each of these demand different skills and resources in education, they are mutually exclusive. Thus we need to prioritise one or the other in order to facilitate implementation. Muller (2000) argues that the current trend, which has been noted by many authors, is that equity is increasingly seen from a market point of view. I will elaborate on this point in the following paragraphs.

#### ***Dominance of the market***

Barr (1999) introduces an international perspective and notes that the agenda for social change is shifting, with civic spaces increasingly being dominated by market spaces. Instead of adult education being seen as the way to develop new knowledges to deal critically and creatively with the world, in order to change it, priority in education and training is being given to the development of a skilled workforce to compete in the global economy. Adult education has become the focus of governments because it is seen as the means of promoting conformity and flexibility of workers in the rapidly changing economy.

Samson (1999) argues that in the context of 'hard times' most Western countries have sought to restructure their education to make it more responsive to the economy. They have seen

education and training as tools for achieving economic goals. At the same time there is a shift towards post-fordist methods of production, with its emphasis on multi-skilled labour. This emphasis has tended to reinforce the economic approach to education and training. In this way the governments can argue that they are facilitating "market-led post-fordist competitiveness and economic growth" through their education and training strategies (Samson, 1999: 2).

Christie (1995) argues that this is also happening locally. Although the initial formulation of the NQF placed a strong emphasis on equity and development, these considerations have been slowly marginalised in favour of economic concerns. The way in which the NQF is being talked about and implemented is increasingly based on human capital theory (Christie, 1995).

Samson (1999) agrees that post-election much of the emphasis on social justice has given way to redress reframed by human capital theory. Samson's (1999) analysis of the NQF policy documents ranging from 1993 COSATU Participatory Research Project up to the post apartheid White and Green paper on education shows that although the policy documents initially emphasised social redress, towards the end of this period, emphasis shifted to economic goals having preference.

Cooper (1998) argues that in the formalising process, there is a dissolution of boundaries of different types of learning. There seems to be an assumption that the aims of all the education and training were the same. If we fail to focus on the specific needs of different marginal groups, all the aims of all education and training become subsumed under the dominant aims of economic growth.

### ***Human capital theory***

In line with the increasing emphasis on market spaces is the increased hegemony of the discourse of human capital theory. Human capital theorists equate education with capital investment, and argue that rates of return can be calculated using traditional economic techniques. Human capital theory is based on the assumption that individuals make rational decisions to invest in their own human capital and are then rewarded by a perfectly functioning labour market in the form of higher wages. The whole nation also benefits as investments in human capital are directly related to the level of economic growth (Samson, 1999).

Christie (1995) recognises that under apartheid there was a clear link between education, wages and productivity in a racially skewed pattern, and that low education was a barrier to formal skills training and higher wages. At the same time when the employees develop skills, these skills were not always recognised by employers and that on the job training was often job specific,

without being a basis for further training or mobility. In this context, arguments that education is necessary for the development of the modern economy are compelling. But she argues that vocationalising general and critical education need not necessarily bring about a progressive outcome. She challenges assumptions that increased education will automatically lead to increased wages and productivity (Christie, 1995).

Coffield (1999) outlines a detailed critique of human capital theory. He also asserts that rather than being empowering, the notion of lifelong learning could represent a new form of social control, which coerces employees to conform to the increasingly demanding needs of employers.

Coffield (1999) claims that human capital theory does not provide an adequate framework for understanding the relationship between education and the economy. He argues that human capital theory fails to recognise that human capital investment needs an appropriate social context in order to be realised effectively. It diverts attention away from structural failures and injustices and blames victims for their poverty by transferring the responsibility for remaining employable onto individuals.

Coffield (1999) argues that the empirical basis of the theory is highly disputable. Personal characteristics and job conditions are more important determinants of work performance than educational attainments. He adds that the theory is seriously incomplete. For education to be effective as an economic development strategy other inputs, like new investment, new methods of production and jobs appropriate to the ability of the employees are also needed, and other options may be more appropriate. He warns that overemphasising education distorts both industrial and educational policy.

Coffield argues that human capital theory ignores polarisation in income and wealth both internationally and locally. He draws on Castells' (1998 cited in Coffield, 1999: 484) argument that new forms of capitalism are creating sharp divides between valuable and non-valuable people and locales, active and culturally self-defined elite's and increasingly insecure, social groups deprived of information as a source of power. Human capital theory also ignores the sexual division of labour. It treats skills as measurable attributes of individuals. He argues that skills are not neutral, technically defined categories, but are socially constructed (Coffield, 1999).

Coffield (1999) points out that human capital theory has created a new moral economy, where some people are treated as more desirable than others. Paid employment is seen as the best means to averting poverty. But some people may be seen as a bad "investment". Education is no longer seen as a means of individual and social emancipation, but rather in economic terms

which has sidelined the discourse of social justice and social cohesion. Finally 'upskilling' creates credential inflation. The more education and training people in general have the less value is accorded to educational credentials, if there is no corresponding expansion of elite jobs.

Having outlined a comprehensive critique of human capital theory, Coffield (1999) addresses the popularity of this thesis. He argues that it legitimates increased expenditure on education, provides politicians with the pretext for action, deflects attention away from the need for economic and social reform and offers the comforting illusion that for a very complex problem there is a simple solution. However, he believes that we will not create a learning society by pinning all hopes on the policy of expanding human capital (Coffield, 1999).

Coffield argues that lifelong learning, one of the aims of the NQF, has many positive functions. But he warns that it can also be seen as a method of increasing social control. Lifelong learning is used by employers to socialise employees to the escalating demands of employers, i.e. to become more flexible and more employable. It shifts the burden of responsibility for education and training and employment to the individual. And as such it denies any structural problems and ignores the need for training for the unemployed. He highlights the tension between specific training needed to meet the short-term needs of employers and the more general training needed by employees in preparation for frequent job changes. He argues that our system of education, training and employment helps us realise the type of society we want to create. We must recognise the tension between the imperatives of capitalism and those of democracy in all its forms and address these (Coffield, 1999).

Samson (1999) argues that conceptual inadequacies regarding market imperfections seem to have been put aside in the face of the utility of human capital as a concept and the lack of any other alternative tools for understanding. It is even being used by groups such as labour movements and the broader left, who would otherwise be critical of the economic orthodoxy upon which it is based (Fine, 1996: 1 in Samson, 1999: 3). In its current form the human capital theory still asserts a necessary relationship between education and training and economic growth. But the critiques of human capital theory question the assumption that there is a direct relationship between education and training and economic development.

Coffield (1999) advocates an alternative approach, which he calls the personal development model, which aims to increase capacities to achieve individual self-fulfilment in all spheres of life, not just economic activities. He argues that we should celebrate social as well as human capital and emphasises the role of institutions of trust and co-operation in promoting economic growth on an equitable basis.

Barr (1999) draws on the understanding outlined by Johnston (1988) who sees the aim of popular adult education as starting from the problems, experiences and social position of excluded majorities. It aims to develop new knowledges to deal critically and creatively with their lives. In that way, Barr argues that adult education should act as an agent of social change and focus on civic revival rather than conforming to the needs of the "huge and ruthless economic machine" (Barr, 1999: 161). Barr believes that adult education's creative and social goals should not be displaced by the goals of individual advancement. From this point of view she argues that we should resist the dominant agenda of 'credentialism' which emphasises competition between individuals rather than collective social change (Barr, 1999).

These are both important considerations in the current South African context where conflicting demands are being placed on education. If education and training serves the perceived needs of the economy exclusively, we need to be clear that there will be a positive impact on the economy. In addition we need to consider who will benefit by these economic improvements. It would seem that there is increasing pressure on individual workers to accommodate to the needs of global capitalism without there being corresponding advantages to these individuals. At the same time our commitment to social development should not be lost. Much work in the non-formal education sector is geared at social development of the broadest kind. If the emphasis were narrowed to focus on economic development only, much of this would be lost.

### ***Competency based education and training***

Competency based education is distinguished by its focus on educational outputs rather than inputs, processes, contents or pedagogy. Learning units are determined centrally and outline what a student should be able to **do** and **exhibit** at the end of a learning programme.

The advantages of the outcomes based approach are seen as objectivity in assessment, the possibility of recognition of prior learning, institutionalisation of flexible pathways between different sites and spheres of learning, the centrality of a core of essential outcomes, and the linking of education and training reform to regrading and workplace restructuring (Samson, 1999). Christie (1995) argues that adopting a competency or outcomes based approach offers advantages since it forms part of the reform agenda to transcend racial inequalities with the vision of education and training as a basic human right for all.

This education system has arisen in the framework of economic rationalism (Bagnall, 1984 cited in Samson, 1999: 4) and has been adopted to achieve the goals of human capital theorists.

Competency based education and training satisfies the needs for a functional evaluation of education and training, by defining measurable outputs.

Samson (1999) argues that although the NQF has been primarily designed to offer redress to previously disadvantaged individuals, it needs to be analysed within the context that it occurs. Originally it was based on research done by National Union of Mineworkers (NUM) on the Australian Vocational Training Programme (AVTP). The AVTP was designed in line with a resurgence of human capital theory, which emphasised the restructuring of the education and training systems to make them compatible with the government's economic and social strategies which was to lead to international competitiveness and economic growth. It is a competency-based approach to education and training which was supposed to produce a "flexible, skilled and clever" work force required for post-fordist production. Although the NQF has social justice goals, it has economic goals foremost in mind. In this way only social goals compatible with both the market, the assumptions, ontology and epistemology on which human capital theory is based, are fostered.

In the current economic conditions and viewing education simply in terms of its economic utility, expenditure on education can only be justified in so far as it increases the skills of learners which leads to economic growth (Samson, 1999).

Christie recognises that an approach which foregrounds concepts and skills rather than content has been advocated as an equity move because it allows different curricula and assessment practices to be developed, based on what different groups of learners could actually be expected to do or achieve. But, she questions the possibility of freeing outcomes from context. She argues that the new system could continue to privilege the social groups with cultural capital by merely enclosing a new orthodoxy (Christie, 1995: 12). She cautions that without imaginative restructuring, inequalities of opportunity and outcome will be an enduring feature of South African education. In this way the competency movement could lead to the "institutionalisation of unequal pathways" (Christie, 1995:12).

We can therefore see that competence-based education can have negative effect for the learners in South Africa. On the one hand expenditure on education and training becomes justified only in as far as it has measurable economic outcomes. On the other hand outcomes of training may not be able to be separated from the context in which the training takes place. By ignoring the context, education and training could continue to privilege those already privileged in the South African context.

### **2.1.2 Feminist critiques**

Unterhalter (1997) outlines three different approaches to feminist curricular reform – liberal, cultural and radical – and argues that different approaches to understanding gender entail different strategies for building gender equity.

The liberal feminist approach to curricular reform is primarily interested in how to turn women's absences into presences and the transformation of learning materials and the inclusion of illustrative material that recognise the existence of women and girls. Cultural feminism argues that there are special and different spheres of women's knowledge and a range of specifically female pedagogies. Unterhalter shows that some of what is identified as "women's epistemology" in general has been included for the whole community of learners by the NQF in the form of the cross-field outcomes. Unterhalter (1997) shows that the NQF entails a recognition of a multiplicity of knowledges but it also represents an attempt to standardise and regulate certain knowledges and ways of knowing - with an emphasis of those believed to develop skills for economic growth, while marginalising other knowledges. Radical feminist approaches focus on power and knowledge. They seek to uncover ways in which dominant and subordinate knowledges in a social formation are linked to the very complex way in which power is exercised. They argue that equity can only emerge through a recognition of diversity, and a promotion of multiple and intersecting interventions.

Unterhalter argues that mainly liberal feminist concerns have been systematically considered in the design of the NQF. She argues that the NQF needs a gender policy if we are to avoid a shift to policies that are not equitable and not linked to social justice.

Samson argues that feminist policy analysts must investigate the impact of policy on different categories of women, while simultaneously problematising the way in which policy is grounded in, mobilises and perpetuates these gendered theoretical constructs (Samson, 1999: 12). Simply exploring the ways in which policies differentially affect biological men and women could undermine the feminist agenda since empirically differentiated realities of women often reify gender and reinforce the socially constructed gender differences.

#### ***The construction of gender identities by the NQF***

Samson (1999) outlines how gender is constructed by the consistent mapping of the privileged/powerful half of the dualistic concepts (for example, strong/weak, intellectual/emotional and so on.) onto biological men and the devalued/powerless half onto women. Once the concepts become associated with men and women the concepts themselves become gendered.

Samson (1999) argues that institutions are frameworks for behavioural rules which shape social perceptions of people's needs and roles, and are therefore generators of both identity and experiences. In the same way that apartheid education contributed to gender stereotypes, the NQF will be involved in the construction of gender identities, not only through curriculum but also through its structures and processes.

Unterhalter (1997) also argues that education and training are gendered spheres. She points out that gender is not only about the quantity of men and women, nor only the visible relations between men and women in any sphere. She argues that gendered power relations in each sphere intermesh with other dimensions of power marked by social divisions of race, ethnicity, sexuality, class and disability. Samson (1999) also points out that different groups of men and women have been gendered in different ways and emphasises the real and important power differentials **within** the categories of men and women. Unterhalter (1997) argues that gendered power relations are present in spheres where women are absent as well as where they are present.

However, in line with human capital theory, which sees people as pre-social beings whose identity is fixed and unchanging, the NQF documents take gender identities as given, containing no awareness of the social construction of gender, or the role the NQF will play in constructing gender identities (Samson, 1999).

Unterhalter (1997) recognises that South Africa is not isolated from global economic currents. She argues that although these are presented as neutral and ungendered, these global forces acting on South Africa are in fact gendered. The needs of the economy are sometimes asserted as though they are above question and economic growth is thus addressed before social justice.

Unterhalter (1997) argues that for the NQF policy community to take on board its commitment to social justice, it has to find ways to reach those that have been excluded or differentially included by the operation of these radicalised and gendered power relations in education and training. Samson argues that institutions must be designed in such a way to give women meaningful choices and not constrain them – as the NQF presently does – to options rooted in narrow gendered subjectivities. By failing to transform gender relations, the NQF will entrench current gender identities (Samson, 1999: 15).

### ***Feminist analysis of NQF policy***

Samson's (1999) analysis of the NQF policy uncovers two problematic aspects. Firstly she comments on the startlingly uneven and unsystematic way in which gender issues have been

addressed. A number of significant documents make no reference to either women or gender. Other documents display little or no consistency either between one another or even within documents in terms of ways in which gender issues are noted and addressed. References to gender are made in throw-away one-liners and not incorporated into the analysis of the documents (Samson, 1999: 12).

Secondly she notes the narrowing of overt conceptualising of gender redress in accordance with the dictates of human capital theory over time. She argues that the regrouping of the NQF in terms of human capital theory has particular implications for the outcome of redress in general and gender redress in particular. She argues that this only allows for a limited notion of redress mostly within a liberal feminist framework.

Samson (1999) shows how early documents acknowledge the negative effect of structural barriers to women accessing education and training, and they at least advocate the provision of childcare facilities to facilitate women's involvement in education and training. Recent documents seem to imply that simply offering the same programmes to all South Africans is a sufficient form of redress. Samson argues that women's domestic responsibilities prevent them from making autonomous decisions and taking independent self-interested actions, while freeing men to do so. The failure to recognise and address these structural constraints which form part of women's identities and create barriers to access, renders the NQF incapable of providing meaningful redress to South African women, black women in particular.

Special provisions have to be made to offer NQF training programmes at times and locations convenient for women, to re-educate men regarding the importance of their female partners being able to participate in training, and to provide childcare facilities for women. Otherwise women, and in particular black women, will simply be unable to take advantage of the NQF (Samson, 1999: 13). Reform in the training field will have to be accompanied by measures to combat sexism, racism and sexual harassment in both education and training environments and the workplace in order for women to be able to utilise their new skills and be remunerated appropriately for them (Samson, 1999).

Unless these issues are specifically addressed the NQF will tend to continue to marginalise women.

### **2.1.3 RPL as a mechanism for social redress**

In the literature about the NQF, mention is often made of Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) as a mechanism for social redress and for securing access to educational opportunities previously

denied to particular groups. However RPL is insufficient as the only mechanism for social redress.

Lugg, Mabitla, Louw, Angelis (1998) argue that even processes specifically aimed at facilitating redress may entrench divisions between groups. They address the use of RPL to facilitate worker empowerment through opening access to education and training and therefore career paths. Since the NQF is outcomes based, it offers workers the opportunity to have skills and knowledge recognised through RPL assessment practices against standards registered on the NQF. The assumption is that with such recognition will come greater respect, greater equity and access to opportunities to progress and increased pay. In this way RPL is put forward as a major mechanism within the NQF for redressing past inequalities in education, training and recognition (Lugg et al, 1998).

Lugg et al (1998) outline how RPL has been located in the South African context within the experiential education movement for social and economic justice. It is considered to offer formal credible recognition for the skills and knowledge that they know people have. It allows gaps to be filled by specific access to education and training. In this way RPL could lead to career progression and wage and grading increases (Lugg et al, 1998).

However, they argue that it is problematic that the responsibility for redress is left to RPL only. They argue that different role players have different primary purposes for RPL (e.g. recognition – in terms of pay or learning credits – of skills and knowledge gained through experience, screening for specific forms of education and training, developing a skills audit, and planning work re-organising). But these various outcomes must be clearly defined and agreed at the outset. The whole process from ways it is conceptualised to ways it is implemented must be designed to meet these purposes. Unless it is designed to suit the people it is targeting, it could have a negative effect on workplace, both in terms of industrial relations and workplace change. It could undermine education and training and work against a culture of learning. Instead of achieving equity through valuing of different forms of knowledge and skill, RPL can lead to increased polarisation and with this increased disadvantage (Lugg et al, 1998). RPL can become a new way to devalue workers' knowledge and a new way to fail and keep people out of the system, economically and educationally (Lugg et al, 1998).

Thus RPL could not only fail to deliver on its promises, but also further entrench the oppression of workers by lack of careful conceptualised and implementation.

## 2.2 EPISTEMOLOGICAL CONCERNS AROUND THE NQF

"The National Qualifications Framework, in common with qualifications or standards frameworks in other countries, is the vehicle for reconfiguring the nature of epistemology and pedagogy" (Harris, 2000: 58). There is a range of epistemological implications of the NQF, which I will outline below.

### 2.2.1 Who defines what counts as knowledge?

A primary epistemological concern that has been raised in the accreditation debate is what is defined as "really useful knowledge" and who makes that decision (Barr, 1999:17).

Samson argues that if inequality is seen as 'disadvantage', arising from unequal access to mainstream knowledge, mechanisms and systems, redress is seen as formally opening up access to the uncontroversial body of 'really useful knowledge', that is, knowledge that is worth national and personal investment (Samson, 1999: 16).

However, both Samson and Barr (1999) argue that different social groups, rather than 'experts' most usefully define this "knowledge which enables an understanding of human experience, enhances self respect and helps people to deal critically and creatively with the world in order to change it" (Barr, 1999: 163). One of the first consequences of formal accreditation and the offering of a qualification is the need for assessment. Assessment necessitates the up-front stipulation of the assessment criteria. This means that all the content is decided before the course is offered and this 'fixes' the knowledge. Once the outcomes of a particular course become static, assessment cannot take into account the unanticipated learning that occurs in the course, nor can the training be seen as a knowledge creation process. From a radical popular adult education perspective, Barr (1999) argues that personal experience is a source of knowledge. Feminist post structuralism assumes that all knowledge is socially constructed and socially and historically situated (Ryan, 2001:9), and thus legitimated, in a social context. From this point of view it cannot be standardised. Barr (1999) argues that a major concern of radical adult education should be to develop research strategies and pedagogical practices, which do not impose pre-determined frameworks on people. Instead we should give recognition to 'knowledge from below' and ways of thinking that do not necessarily fit narrow notions of rationality. She believes that this should transcend the divide between different ways of knowing and forms of knowledge, which our culture separates off from one another and which over-privileges academic and abstract knowledge and undervalues knowledge born of experience and understanding (Barr, 1999).

In the NQF knowledge is represented in national standards. Harris (2000) argues that setting these standards, tends to fix knowledge which makes knowledge less permeable. This means that it becomes less possible to engage with what constitutes useful knowledge. Barr (1999) argues that the aim of adult education is not only to increase access to existing knowledge, but also to facilitate the development of new meanings and new knowledge. The up-front identification of knowledge, which is stipulated by the outcomes of a training programme, precludes this new development of knowledge. Harris (2000) argues that we must engage with the definition of knowledge in order to extend our understanding of what constitutes knowledge. She argues that we should challenge what counts as knowledge and supports the view of knowledge as a human product – as socially constructed – rather than predetermined and objective. Diversity of knowledge should be valued (Harris, 2000:61), and we should emphasise the place and value of local knowledge, and emphasise that kind of knowledge which is likely to be overlooked in the development of national standards.

Although one of the explicit aims of the NQF is redress, Samson argues that little attention has been paid to the changing conceptualisation of redress or to the mechanisms required to achieve it. She argues that the theoretical underpinnings of the NQF shape the possibilities for gender redress within it. She argues that the current gender debate needs to be expanded from issues limited to access, to include how the construction of knowledge is itself gendered and the need for epistemological redress (Samson, 1999: 1).

Barr (1999) also argues that new subject areas of knowledge creation and learning develop better outside formal structures and institutional power divisions. She believes that the marginality of adult education is part of its strength (Barr, 1999). From this point of view it could be argued that the centralisation of all learning within the NQF could negatively affect the production of new and transformative knowledge.

### **2.2.2 Equivalence or transfer of different types of knowledge**

One of the aims of the NQF is to formalise and make explicit all types of learning and plot them on the structure of the NQF. Assessment also requires the transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge.

Hart (1992) firstly questions whether this transformation is always possible. She also notes that this new distilled knowledge is likely to be different in significant ways from the previous embodied and implicit state of knowing (Hart, 1992: 130).

She secondly argues that making tacit knowledge explicit, is an act of power by employers. She argues that skilled work is knowledge which is “embodied”, knowledge that emerges through active concrete involvement with materials and requirements of the craft. This knowledge resides in the actual worker, it is revealed only through the act of work and production, knowledge and practical action are fully intertwined (Hart, 1992: 129). The implicit and personal nature of skills means that the power of such knowledge resides in the individual worker. This is a problem for the capitalist who needs to rein in such power in order to control the labour process. Thus making this knowledge explicit allows the factory owner or manager to appropriate it (Hart, 1992). In this way the processes of the NQF can be seen to advantage the employers at the expense of the employee.

In theory, an outcomes based approach allows for different learning contexts, curricula, assessment and learning paths to be articulated in a single system. Christie (1995) argues that this is part of the appeal from an equity point of view of an outcomes-based system. However, she questions whether it is possible to establish equivalent competencies or outcomes in different learning contexts and even whether formal equivalence relates to actual equivalence and ability to move to another sphere of study. She also argues that an outcomes based approach with its emphasis on outcomes, may bring about rigidity in curriculum, pedagogy and assessment which may prevent access into the system, thus undermining its appeal. By claiming to value a range of different knowledges and ways of knowing, while favouring certain types of knowledge, the NQF obscures the process of marginalising devalued knowledge.

Bernstein (2000) argues that it is impossible to equate different types of knowledge. He also argues that it is misguided to attempt to include informal everyday knowledge into a formal academic setting. Bernstein (2000) differentiates between academic formal knowledge and everyday knowledge, which he calls vertical and horizontal knowledge respectively. He outlines the different characteristics of “horizontal knowledge structures” and “vertical knowledge structures”. Bernstein (2000) argues that it is not possible to equate the two knowledge structures because of their different nature and origin. He also argues that it is not that useful to try and integrate “horizontal” discourses into formal settings.

He defines the horizontal discourse as “a set of strategies which are local, segmentally organised, context specific and dependent, for maximising encounters with persons and habits” (Bernstein, 2000: 157). It is the everyday knowledge that we all have access to and is relevant to everyone. This knowledge tends to be “oral, local, context dependent and specific, tacit, multi layered and contradictory across but not within contexts” (Bernstein, 2000: 157). It is important to note that it

is segmentally organised in that the opportunities for gathering or using the knowledge are separated from each other in time and location.

In any community the knowledge that different people have will be different. In his view knowledge circulation depends on how social relationships are structured. The less the isolation between community members, the more the circulation of strategies of procedures and their exchange. In this way both the community and the individual's knowledge grows. Bernstein (2000) outlines the way in which this horizontal knowledge is transferred. He argues that the way the knowledge is taught depends on what is to be learnt (Bernstein, 2000). These knowledges are not related through some co-ordinating principle, but rather what we need to know in different contexts in everyday life. For this reason, what is acquired in one context and how it is acquired may have no relation to what is acquired in another context and how that is acquired. This makes the pedagogy segmental and accounts for "segmentally structured acquisitions" (Bernstein, 2000: 159).

Horizontal knowledge may be tacitly transmitted through modelling, by showing or by explicit modes. Teaching is usually carried out face to face, with strong affective loading as in family group, peer group or local community (Bernstein, 2000). The teaching is deeply embedded in the context (Bernstein, 2000). The knowledge to be gained in the horizontal discourse is mostly directed towards specific immediate goals highly relevant to the acquirer in their context. It is important to note that this learning may only be demonstrated where it is needed (Bernstein, 2000). This is why he argues that principles that have been learnt in everyday setting may not be displayed in formal school contexts where they do not seem relevant.

In contrast with this informal, day to day knowledge the vertical discourse accounts for formal schooled knowledge (Bernstein, 2000). The vertical discourses are specialised symbolic structures of explicit knowledge, which exist in two forms. They either consist of a coherent, explicit and systematically principled structure hierarchically organised, like science or a series of specialised languages with specialised modes of interrogation, specialised criteria for the production and circulation of texts, like Sociology or other Social Sciences (Bernstein, 2000). Vertical discourse is not a segmentally organised discourse. This knowledge is organised and understood in the abstract and understanding certain concepts depends on knowledge of previous lower level concepts. This means that knowledge is applicable across contexts. Education is institutionalised, extending over long periods of time not directly related to the use of the knowledge.

Bernstein (2000) argues that the insertion of horizontal discourses into formal school subjects is misguided because of the different nature of these two discourses. A segmental competency or literacy based in everyday knowledge may not be used or useful in the formal setting because it is not seen as relevant in that context. He also argues that focussing on everyday knowledge in formal settings may reinforce marginalisation since these insertions are usually limited to marginal knowledges or marginal groups. It is also true that vertical knowledge structures cannot easily be integrated into the horizontal knowledge structures of everyday knowledge.

This means that the inclusion of knowledge, which is learned in everyday settings in communities, at home or at work, can not be successfully integrated into a formal academic setting, which the NQF is trying to do. Bernstein's (2000) argument contradicts the assumptions of the NQF that all knowledge can be considered equivalent. Not only are the types of knowledge different, the ways in which this knowledge is transferred is also different and without being in the everyday situation in which that knowledge was developed, the knowledge may not be accessible to the learner.

### **2.2.3 Critique of the positivist conception of knowledge**

Positivist epistemology provides the foundation for human capital theory and outcomes based education (Samson, 1999: 16). Within the positivist framework, knowledge is seen as something, which exists independently of both the teacher and the learner, simply being transmitted from the teacher to the learner. The acquisition of knowledge as knowledge is seen to be unaffected by and have no effect on the learner's identity. Both competency based education and human capital theory assumes an unproblematic relationship between knowledge and skills, for example that the same knowledge will lead to the same skills in all instances (Samson, 1999). Thus competency based education is epistemologically compatible with human capital theory, which sees knowledge as an uncontroversial instrument to be acquired by all individuals and utilised to secure higher wages and greater economic growth (Samson, 1997). In human capital theory, knowledge is seen as an objective tool for redress and not a terrain of redress (Samson, 1999).

Feminist critiques of positivist epistemology mainly centre on the separation of the subject and object, knower and the known, which is central to positivist epistemology. Feminist, Marxist and Post-Positivist theorists reject this clinical dualism as an ideological construct. Rather than existing in isolation, subject and object, knower and the known are intimately linked, in fact mutually constituted. These hierarchical dualisms simultaneously contribute to the construction of and are constructed by gender. As these dualisms assert the objective independence of knowledge, they obscure the way in which knowledge claims are based on the experience, interests, and concerns of the knower. They also fail to recognise that in sexist societies knowledge usually reflects hegemonic male perspectives (Samson, 1999: 16).

Samson (1999) argues that although the construction of knowledge occurs within a particular value orientation or framework no mention is made of what values should underpin the knowledge validated in the learning outcomes of the NQF.

In this way we see, both in theory and in practice, how changes in the value accorded to different types of knowledge, change the power relations between people and the social purpose of learning. If we assume that all learning and knowledge is equivalent we lose sight of the particular social purposes different educational processes served in the past. In this way we may lose the inherent value of these educational activities. We see also that knowledge and ways of knowing are gendered and serve male hegemony. Samson (1999, 4) argues that competency based education and training perpetuates sexism and racism due to its epistemological biases, by differential valuing of different knowledges and ways of knowing.

## **2.3 PEDAGOGICAL CONCERNS AROUND THE NQF**

It has been argued by a variety of authors (Muller, 1997; Cooper, 1997, 1998) that the social aims advocated for the implementation of outcomes-based education are manifested pedagogically in either a "Performance" model or a "Competence" model of pedagogy.

### **2.3.1 Two contrasting models of pedagogy**

Muller (1997) drawing on Bernstein (1996) outlines two contrasting models of pedagogy, called competence and performance models.

#### ***The competence model***

The "Competence" model is based on a social constructivist understanding of learning, which argues that everyone can, in principle, achieve competence in a particular skill, given enough time and opportunity. Its primary focus is on not hampering people's potential (Muller, 1997). Competence models assume three distinct modes: liberal/progressive, populist and radical. All three are based on the concept of empowerment (cognitive, cultural and political, respectively), all three emphasise active, creative forms of learning (within weakly classified pedagogic space and time) and they foreground 'invisible' forms of pedagogy and control.

#### ***The performance model***

"Performance" model of pedagogy, on the other hand, focuses on output. It is strongly bounded by space and time; deploys visible forms of pedagogy and control; and foregrounds hierarchy and grading. Performance pedagogy is more overt and directed at performance mastery. Specific

performance criteria, which judge specialised performances, are pre-set thus reducing the need for interpretation. The regulation of learning is external with a much more explicit curriculum and explicit rules for acquisition. There is less control by learners over learning and express criteria for judgement of what is right and wrong (Muller, 1997).

### **2.3.2 Social purpose achieved by each model**

As mentioned earlier, there are two main aims outlined for the NQF, namely redress and economic development respectively, which are both worthy of our support (Muller, 1997). However, each of these social discourses are linked to different and incompatible pedagogies which differ in their assumptions about who learners are, what learning is all about, also the social organisation of learning, the support services required and the role accorded to the state (Muller, 1997).

#### ***Competence pedagogy facilitating redress***

The competence model, which is therapeutic or emancipatory, supports the emancipatory, equity and social justice aims of the NQF. The union movement and other populist and radical groups are driving this project of social justice.

In the discourse of emancipation, equality and social justice, the word 'competence' is used to describe *internal potentiality*. It argues that everybody can in principle achieve success in a particular area given time and opportunity. The main way to allow people to fulfil their potential is to ensure that their potential is not hampered in any way. The appropriate task of progressive education is to keep it unhampered. This emancipatory discourse thus supports emancipatory or therapeutic pedagogy, whose main function is to prevent the hampering of people's potential.

In the therapeutic pedagogy, which corresponds to the competence pedagogy, what is to be promoted, stimulated and nurtured is the built-in creativity and generativity of the learner. The emphasis is on nurturing the integration of the whole individual. The learner has maximum control over the selection of programme, content, sequence and pace of learning, thus individualising the pedagogy. An environment of competent equals is fostered and a suspicion of expertise and hierarchy is cultivated. The educator is 'invisible' and manages learning through personal attention and context management. The learning rules are unstated and tacit. In this pedagogy to be a good educator takes an enormous amount of craft training and craft sensitivity. This is because it depends on the ability to nurture the individual creativity and potential of each learner. Assessment is in terms of the 'fit' between displayed performance and potentiality, outcomes should not be taken literally at the level of competence of the person. Assessment is a complex matter, which necessarily has to be based on non-specialised competence criteria. It is based on

how the outcome approximates the potential or competence ideal. This approach focuses on internal regulation of learning, to maximise internal creativity of learners, maximum individualisation, wider disparities (Muller, 1997).

### ***Performance pedagogy facilitating economic development***

The performance model of pedagogy supports innovation and global competitiveness (Muller, 1997) and is being driven by employers and post-fordist education theorists. This is associated with the commodification of knowledge and emphasis on flexibility, mobility and re-trainability (Cooper, 1998).

In the discourse of innovation and global competitiveness, competence is used to refer to an *outcome* or an *external performance* (associated with vocational education). This discourse of innovation supports economic pedagogy (Muller, 1997). In supporting the economic competitiveness of South Africa, economic pedagogy must foster an adaptability to continual external novelty. This pedagogy individualises and specialises particular skills and skill careers. The learner has some selection over the learning programme, but less over content and sequence. There is overt management hierarchy, the teacher is somebody who controls the learning technology and makes expertise available where necessary. The outcomes are specified, feedback can be relatively generic and rules for performance are relatively specific. The ability to manage the learning course is not as specialised nor requires as intensive a craft training as does the therapeutic one. Economic pedagogy is more overt and directed at performance mastery. There are specific performance criteria to be met, which judge specialised performances – so the need for interpretation is minimised. The regulation of learning is external with a much more explicit curriculum and explicit rules of acquisition. There is far less control by learners over learning and there are express criteria for judgement of what is right and wrong (Muller, 1997).

### **2.3.3 The incompatibility of competence- and performance-based pedagogy**

These two different pedagogical approaches have different needs, the former requires highly skilled teachers and the latter requires high quality teaching materials (Muller, 1997).

The first model of outcomes-based education calls for a tacit pedagogy, which requires enormous craft skills on the part of our teachers. In order to succeed in this competence pedagogy the state must spend money on INSET (In-service Training). This is because this model requires highly skilled educators with intuitive craft knowledge, a high degree of discretionary expertise and the ability to develop high quality materials. It also requires a para-professional bureaucracy of advice, support and repair services (Muller, 1997).

The performance model calls for a comprehensive, external, skills-based system, which at its most sophisticated does not require teachers at all. This approach relies on maximum standardisation, which tends to narrow disparities. The state's role would be modest training and INSET, but much more emphasis on materials development, evaluation and dissemination (Muller, 1997).

Muller (1997) argues that two types of criticisms are directed at the NQF. On the one hand, we hear that outcomes-based education will require especially highly trained teachers. Since we all recognise that the majority of our teachers are under-qualified, this is a problem. On the other hand, outcomes based education is criticised for being behaviouristic, instrumental and technicist. These criticisms are mutually exclusive because they correspond to the two different types of pedagogy in outcomes based education. Muller (1997) points out that the problem is **either** teachers **or** material depending on whether it is referring to competence or performance model of pedagogy. He argues that only when we have chosen our model can we prioritise policy choices in terms of spending money on teacher training or materials development.

Muller (1997) argues that at the moment, there is no distinction being made between these two models of pedagogy in the policy written on the NQF. He argues that such a hybrid model cannot work and that we must choose one of these models before we can plan for successful implementation. He argues that in the long run the impact of the global economy and pressures towards market responsiveness will mean an increasingly 'performance-dominated' NQF. Thus unless we place specific emphasis on the therapeutic mode, the economic mode is likely to move to the fore Muller (1997). This had particular implications for education and training offered by NGOs, which had traditionally drawn strongly on a competence-based model of pedagogy, which is in line with its social equity and redress functions. If what Muller is saying is true, this could mean that NGOs would be increasingly under pressure to adopt a more 'performance' based pedagogy, at the expense of the therapeutic mode.

## 2.4 RESEARCH IN THE FIELD

In my search for relevant research, I found very little directly related to my research question. Thus in the following section I will outline research that is indirectly related to the question. The research done by Cooper, relates to changes to trade union education and training. Although hers is not strictly an empirical study, Cooper comments on shifts that she has noticed within the trade union education and training. Kell's research focuses on shifts in Adult Basic Education and Training. This is a field that is characterised by recent formalisation. As such it relates

indirectly to my question about formalisation of previously non-formal education and training. The research done by Davies concerns the formalisation of adult education in the United Kingdom.

Cooper (1998) illustrates Bernstein's (1996 in Harris, 2000:74) argument that changing understandings of knowledge create changes in principles of control, authority, previously specialised discourses, rules and transmission practises. She agrees that approaches to education are always indicative of larger processes of social power, conflict and change (Cooper, 1998:144). She considers the implications of formalisation of trade union education within the context of the NQF.

She outlines that a shift in dominance is currently being seen between the two discourses, each of which constructs the meanings of experience, learning and knowledge differently. Cooper points out that new boundaries delineating the field of trade union education have emerged linked to new understandings of what constitutes knowledge, how knowledge is produced, where learning takes place, and how the social purpose of education is viewed.

She outlines that the knowledge structure of trade union education was previously a horizontal knowledge structure. The traditional discourse emerged organically out of the history of labour movement and linked education closely with political practice, saw learning as emerging out of worker's collective experiences of oppression and exploitation and viewed the purpose of education as one of empowerment and social transformation. It was orally based, placed high value on 'everyday' knowledge and common sense. It valued workers' experience and foregrounded local, context-embedded forms of knowledge. It used pedagogic methods favouring tacit acquisition of knowledge through the very process of involvement in trade union activity and worker struggle.

This discourse stressed inclusivity and equality by virtue of their experiences of oppression, organisation and struggle (Cooper, 1998). The primary emphasis was placed on knowledge being useful. There was acknowledgement that trade union training was partisan, rooted in a black working class view of the world and that it differed from employer provided workplace training, and the state's "Bantu Education". The social purpose of the training was to build the workers' confidence and for them to use their knowledge for empowerment and radical transformation towards a socialist future (Cooper, 1998). In the transformative discourses in worker education in the 1970s and 1980s emphasis was placed on collective experience and a culture of sharing which resulted in collective rather individual language.

Knowledge was seen to emerge from collective experience, and was to be used and shared by other workers. The kinds of knowledge most valued were those that could be developed and expressed collectively. Education programmes used methods that encouraged active participation by all participants. There was a blurring of boundaries between educator and learner: every one possessed rich experience of life, every worker was considered to be both a learner and an educator, indicated by the slogan "Each one, teach one" (Cooper, 1998).

However, Cooper (1997) notes that during the 1990s in the period in which the NQF was implemented, there was hardening of the boundaries of what counts as knowledge, corresponding to a shift in knowledge from the traditionally horizontal discourse to a vertical, hierarchical knowledge discourse which carries more specialised languages and is more distant from everyday experience (Cooper, 1997 and 1998). The new discourse has been appropriated by the labour movement from human resource development, and emphasises assessment and accreditation of learning from life and work experiences as the basis for creating new routes into higher education, employment and training opportunities. The new discourse is influencing the way the unions think about their own internal education leading to institutionalisation of trade union education, and an emphasis on it being run on a more professional basis, formal certification and "career-pathing" for trade union employees. There is a shift from 'consciousness-raising' to expanding and diversifying the knowledge, capabilities and expertise of worker leaders so that they can engage in complex collective bargaining processes. This is based on workers' aspirations to be recognised, given respect, greater equality and opportunities to progress. But this is also in line with processes of post-fordist restructuring and globalisation of the world economy, whose consequences – particularly for workers – have been widely criticised (Cooper, 1998).

There is also a corresponding shift to seeing experience as individually owned and something that can be exchanged for a qualification in order to compete with other workers in the capitalist labour market. In this way the struggle becomes one for individual advancement and career paths (Cooper, 1998).

Cooper (1997; 1998) predicts that these changes are likely to be accompanied by changes in social power relations and an increasing hardening of boundaries between experts and ordinary workers, between professional educators and learners and between the realms of education, culture and the struggle.

The formalisation and institutionalisation of worker education within a more vertical discourse will most certainly lead to new forms of differentiation and stratification amongst workers, and new

forms of inclusion and exclusion. Cooper (1997) argues that inclusion and exclusion may well be based on a new elite of trained workers and the large numbers of untrained casual or marginalised workers, between those who are 'in' the NQF and those who are outside it. As knowledge structures become more formalised in all contexts of learning, types of knowledge which are explicit and formal are favoured while informal and tacit knowledge is marginalised. In a formal context, knowledge is no longer permeable and diversity is no longer valued. The social purpose of such learning is then also lost (Cooper, 1998).

The next section summarises research by Cathy Kell (1996) on the consequences of the formalisation of Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) and outlines her critique of (ABET) policy and practice.

Prior to the issuing by the Department of Education the Interim Guidelines for Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) in 1995, there was no form of state regulation of the ABET field at all. There were as many definitions of ABET as there were sites where it was practised. The field was characterised by fragmentation, absence of standards, no canon, no accredited professional development or teacher training, high attrition rates, lack of resources, an inefficient use of resources, and no measure of effectiveness (Kell, 1997). But the work commanded high moral authority and literacy discourses were deeply embedded in the narrative of struggle against apartheid. After 1990 the literacy discourses have all been subsumed under "competency based education and training". Kell (1997) argues that although the policy written about literacy teaching encompasses the competence-based model of pedagogy with its social aim of redress, in practise it is being implemented in a "performance mode" of pedagogy which satisfies different social aims (Kell, 1997).

Kell (1997) argues that the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is seen as national structure, designed to integrate education and training, to address the low skill levels amongst workers and bring the marginalised into the economy. According to the National Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) Framework: Interim Guidelines released in October 1995, this system ensures access, redress, individual mobility, standards guaranteed according to internationally accepted outcomes, and will need clearly specified outcomes. Kell (1996) outlines how the results of research of the Social Uses of Literacy (SoUL) research project undermine the assumptions of the policy.

Firstly she argues that literacy practices are highly embedded in context. However in ABET policy and practice literacy has been subsumed under ABET and other forms of literacy are marginalised. The way literacy is being taught is highly geared to further learning, rather than to

consolidating and expanding roles that the learners have in their families, homes and communities. Although the NQF offers opportunities for flexible and diversified provision, in practice ABET teaching has become an impoverished kind of "teaching to the test" (Kell, 1996:12). A narrowing of curriculum and assessment determined by funding requirements, has exacerbated this impoverished teaching.

She argues that in terms of access and redress, it cannot simply be assumed that people will take advantage of provision of educational opportunities. She argues that literacy provision is deeply embedded in the discourse of deficiency. The way in which literacy is pitched on the levels of the NQF as fundamental components, undermine the embedded nature of literacy acquisition. She argues that it may be more useful to acquire the discourse in which the literacy is embedded than to decontextualise the skills.

Secondly she shows that what is seen as traditional literacy practices hardly exist in everyday life, and where they do, they have not lead to empowerment and that those with schooling may relinquish literacy tasks to others based on factors unrelated to their literacy competencies. Often those who have learnt schooled literacy competencies have no other opportunity to practice these skills, which sets learners up for failure.

Thus she argued that although ABET policies have been constructed for redress, the very people most in need of redress are likely to benefit least by this system (Kell, 1996)

Pat Davies (2000) has researched the implication of formalising adult education in the UK. She ties the increasing significance of qualifications to three factors. Firstly, there is the idea that improving competitiveness in the global market requires an increase in the level of skills in the labour force. Secondly the development of a contract culture in the public sector has been accompanied by an operational need to measure the capacity, the quality of service and the output of an organisation. In education and training policy, the qualification has become the key in measuring not only the learners' achievements, but also the effectiveness of the professionals and the performance of the institutions. The third more marginal factor is a concern with equity, which sees qualifications as the key to addressing social exclusion (Davies, 2000).

Davies (2000) outlines some of the concerns that the educators involved in adult education had with the formalisation of the education. These centred around the focus on economic necessity underpinning the approach and the introduction of assessment. The practitioners argued that the learners did not want assessment, that the fear of assessment was a demotivating factor for potential learners, that assessment would distort the purpose of the course, and finally that the

facilitators would be forced into a more traditional role, having to judge the learners' work. The trade union movement in particular also argued that the social collaborative mode of learning should not be replaced by an individualised or competitive culture. It was also a concern that the accreditation would undermine the student-centredness of the programme content and the teaching and learning methods. Finally the language involved was full of mechanical images and the vocabulary of control rather than emphasising the value of the learning process itself and the collective experience of change and control.

In her research about the consequences Davies (2000) found the following. Some education practitioners valued the rewarding of small steps, while others said that it made the learners obsessed with credits. Some tutors felt that both they and the learners had lost control over the programme, while others said that the educators had more control now over the programme than the learners. The continued existence of informal characteristics of the learners experiences was largely dependent on the ability and readiness of the tutors to exploit the potential offered by the accreditation arrangements and some tutors did so more than others.

In general the learners who compared their learning to that which they experienced in school, preferred their experience as adult learners, and did not feel that the accreditation had distorted the informal characteristics of the learning experience that they appreciated. They appreciated the assessment techniques that were varied and not too formal and pressured. The learners valued certification, and felt that assessment had enhanced rather than diminished the value of the learning. In general the study found no evidence that the formalisation of learning through the introduction of assessment had significantly undermined the informal dimensions of adult education or distorted the learning experience of the participants (Davies, 2000).

Thus despite concerns about what the formalisation process would do to the education and training being offered to adults, and the fact that changes were identified by adult education practitioners, Davies concludes that that the potential negative effects are not of concern. She argues this in the light of the positive views of the participants and the view that there is scope to maintain the features of adult education. However we see once again that in the research into processes of formalising previously non-formal education, unintended consequences do emerge. If these are not given adequate attention, it will mean that the people, who are most in need of social inclusion and redress, will be further marginalised.

## **2.5 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter I have outlined three broad categories of critique of the NQF. These have been social, epistemological and pedagogical.

In the section on sociological concerns, I outlined how human capital theory has gained prominence in educational debates, despite criticisms of its underlying assumptions. This means that economic demands are overshadowing the social demands on education. Feminist critiques of the NQF policy also note the increased assumption that economic imperatives are accepted without question. Furthermore they argue that there is a lack of gender awareness in the policy underpinning the NQF. This makes gender inequality an inevitable consequence of the implementation of the NQF. Finally the literature on recognition of prior learning (RPL) argues that placing the burden of redress on RPL alone, further entrenches divides between people. The particular way in which RPL is implemented serves to benefit some over others. The needs of particular groups need to be taken into account in the implementation of RPL and equity issues need to be addressed more broadly than in RPL alone.

In the section on epistemological concerns I show that the critical literature argues that the human capital theory and outcomes based education both assume a very positivistic view of knowledge. For both there is an uncomplicated relationship between knowledge and the use of this knowledge for individual and economic benefit. However, critiques of positivism argue that knowledge is socially constructed. We need to consider who benefits by the way that knowledge is seen and what is considered to be valid knowledge. Unless we do this, knowledge developed and used by marginal groups will be devalued further and the emancipatory aims of adult education will be lost.

In the section on the pedagogical concerns with the NQF I refer back to the policy on the aims of the NQF, and cite literature, which shows that two distinct aims (those of social redress and economic development) are being supported. There is an assumption that both these aims can be achieved simultaneously by the introduction of the new outcomes-based approach supported by the NQF. I drew on Bernstein's (1996) two distinct pedagogic models called competence and performance models. The literature shows how each of these is used to fulfil different aims being promoted by policy on the NQF respectively. However, they are mutually exclusive, demanding different skills and resources. For this reason we cannot assume that the NQF can satisfy both aims the policy claims it achieves. We need to decide which aim demands our primary focus and focus our resource allocation on the method of pedagogy that supports that purpose. In light of the arguments made in the section on social concerns, it is inevitable that unless we specifically choose to emphasise social aims, economic imperatives will prevail.

## CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

In this chapter I will outline the methodology that was used in this research. I start by outlining the differences between paradigms, methods and techniques and then use those categories to describe and justify the research process that I used. I also discuss possible sources of error and issues of reliability and validity.

### 3.1 PARADIGMS, METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

Mouton (1996) makes an important distinction between methodological paradigm, method and technique. He outlines the difference as follows. Methodological **paradigms**, for example: quantitative or qualitative paradigms, are based on certain assumptions and values regarding their use in specific circumstances. Research **methods** refer to the means required to execute a certain stage in the research process, for example: data collection methods or data analysis methods. Research **techniques** refer to the tools that the researcher uses to execute specific tasks, for example: face-to-face interviewing (Mouton, 1996). Silverman (2001) states that qualitative research covers a wide range of different, even conflicting, activities. Mouton (1996) argues that although certain research methods and research techniques may be more applicable to certain methodological paradigms, no technique or method is for the exclusive use of a particular methodological paradigm.

I will use these three levels to describe and justify the methodology that I have used in my research.

### 3.2 METHODOLOGICAL PARADIGM AND METHODOLOGY

Yin (1993) feels that in social science a variety of methods including surveys, experiments, analysis of archival information and historiography can be used in combination. Silverman (2001) argues that the choice between qualitative and quantitative methodology is not based on a fundamental value judgement of the value of the one versus the other, but rather on the usefulness in the particular research in question. Quantitative methods are not the only ways of establishing the validity of findings from the field. Qualitative methods may well give a deeper understanding of social phenomena than could be gleaned from a quantitative data (Silverman, 2001). Qualitative research is used in particular circumstances because it is seen to be the most useful for addressing a particular research question with the available data (Mouton, 1996). In

general qualitative research uses a wealth of rich descriptive data and the research strategy is contextual in nature (Mouton, 1996).

My research was conducted using a qualitative methodological paradigm. The qualitative approach was considered to be best suited to this study due to the nature of the question being investigated. The phenomenon under study (the various implications of formalising previously non-formal adult education) is one that cannot easily be separated from the context in which it occurs, that is, the current policy and socio-political context of South Africa. In fact the context plays an important role in the understanding of this issue. Thus a method which is able to take these important contextual features and the mass of information into account was seen as the most suitable method.

Qualitative research has an emphasis on one case or a small number of cases in its specific context of meanings and significance (Mouton, 1996). I used case study methodology for my research. Yin defines case studies as "an empirical inquiry in which the number of variables exceeds the number of data points" (Yin, 1993: 32). This means a study where the number of variables (i.e. the things that can change or impact on the phenomenon under study) is more than the sample on which you base your study. He argues that case study research continues to be an essential form of social science inquiry. Yin (1993) argues that the case study is the method of choice when the phenomenon under study is not readily distinguishable from its context. Case studies are more appropriate for broadly, rather than narrowly defined topics and for covering contextual conditions and not just the phenomenon of study, and for relying on multiple and not singular sources of information. As such the use of case studies was seen to be most suitable for my study, where my question was of a broad, explanatory nature where the phenomenon of "formalisation" is deeply embedded in the current context and where I need to draw on a range of sources of information.

Case studies can either be single or multiple and can be exploratory case studies, descriptive case studies or causal case studies (Yin, 1993). Exploratory case studies are aimed at defining the questions and hypotheses of subsequent study or at determining the feasibility of the desired research procedures. They are thus needed as a prelude to any form of social research. A descriptive case study presents a complete description of a phenomenon within its context. An explanatory case study presents data bearing on a case-effect relationship, explaining which causes produce which effects (Yin, 1993).

Qualitative research can be used to familiarise oneself with a setting before further research is attempted (Silverman, 2001). The formalisation of previously non-formal education in NGO

settings is a very new phenomenon and very few organisations have yet made much progress in this regard. The sample of available cases was too small to use quantitative methods, which would require large numbers of cases or instances for statistical significance. Thus quantitative methodology was not seen as a useful method. My research was exploratory in nature. I wanted as much detailed information about organisations that have formalised their training to develop an understanding of the situation. For this reason a holistic look at the organisations in question, understood from the insider's perspective (Mouton, 1996), was useful. The qualitative case-study methodology thus gives an in-depth description of the changes occurring in the two cases as understood by various members of the organisations. The research method and data collection techniques were designed to gain as much detailed and accurate a description as possible. A case study framework was the most suitable to achieve such depth and detail.

Yin (1993) argues that it is imperative to be clear about the major unit of analysis for the case study. For my study the major unit of analysis was the **training programme** offered by a non-governmental organisation. Since the training programme covers various aspects (the curriculum, pedagogy, educators and students), this is an embedded design and different research questions were needed for each area.

### **3.3 RESEARCH METHODS**

#### **3.3.1 Case screening**

The factors for choosing a case could be that they are (1) critical for the issues being investigated, (2) have most topical relevance to the area of study or (3) feasibility and access (Yin, 1993: 34).

I decided for reasons of feasibility and access to restrict my selection of cases to the Western Cape area. In order to find out which organisations would fall into the sample of possible cases to use, I initially did exploratory telephonic interviews with 33 organisations in the Western Cape area who offer training. The process of finding these organisations was an informal exploratory process and I drew on my own experience and knowledge of the NGO training field. I spoke to organisations that I know in the training field and asked them what they know about accreditation via SAQA, whether they had embarked on a process of applying for accreditation from SAQA, and if so, how far they were in the process. Once I had spoken to them I asked whether they knew any other organisations that were pursuing accreditation. (For a list of all the organisations that I telephoned see Appendix A). Most of the organisations that I telephoned had heard of the process of accreditation, but did not yet feel in a position to apply for SAQA accreditation of their own training. They were still investigating the requirements and also the potential benefits to their

organisation. Most of the organisations expressed interest in the outcome of research that I was planning to undertake, in the hope that it might help them to make the decision of whether to pursue accreditation or not.

During this telephone interviewing process I discovered two organisations that had received accreditation, one directly from SAQA with an additional registration with the Western Cape Education Department and one with accreditation via a tertiary institution with the Council for Higher education. Initially I had planned to use only one case, but since these two appeared so different, I decided they would provide a useful contrast. A few other organisations also have provisional registration or had courses that were designed within the SAQA requirements. However, these were the only two organisations in the Western Cape that I found that had been offering non-formal training before and had now formalised this in order to register their courses with SAQA.

I decided that these cases were both critical for the issues being investigated and had topical relevance to the study. I attempted access to both organisations. I had had telephonic contact with staff members of the organisations before, but I now wrote formally to the Directors of each of the organisations explaining to them the purpose of my research and requesting that they give permission for me to use their organisations as case studies. Both organisations agreed. Since I had gained access to both organisations, I decided to use both and therefore decided to use multiple cases for my study. In my case these were the training programmes offered by two organisations, which were significantly different enough to offer predictably different replications. (Yin, 1993: 5)

### **3.3.2 Data collection**

Mouton refers to Zelditch (1962) who outlines three different types of data and the most appropriate ways to gather such data. He claims that surveys are best for information concerning incidents while the use of informants or interviews are best for information about norms and status. Yin (1993) argues that the case study method does not imply any particular method of data collection, which could be qualitative or quantitative. The inclusion of the context as a major part of a study creates distinctive technical challenges. The richness of the context means that the study will have more variables than cases from which data is gathered (Yin, 1993). The study cannot rely on a single data collection method, but will likely need to use multiple sources of evidence. Since my research was qualitative in nature I used a selection of the four distinct techniques of data collection commonly used in qualitative research outlined by Silverman (2001), namely observation, analysing texts, interviews and recording and transcribing naturally occurring

interactions. I used interviews with informants within the organisations and analysing texts to obtain data about the consequences of formalisation of the training after accreditation with SAQA.

### ***Selection of the interviewees***

I asked the directors of the two organisations to suggest people within the organisation to interview. After that I phoned the people I planned to interview and set up appointments with them. In the case of each person I interviewed, I also asked whether there would be any one else that they recommend I interview. I tried to interview people from both organisations who held similar positions. For example, in each organisation I interviewed the director, the ex-director, the training manager, and current educators. I also interviewed ex-students from one training programme and current students from the other.

### ***Designing the interview questions***

I used the Education Training and Development Practices (ETDP) report (John, Aithison, and Butler, 1996) which analyses ETD practices across sites and proposes a model of ETD practice, which can be used to compare ETD Practices across sites. I used these categories to design the questions for my interview. I also included other categories shown to be relevant by my literature review.

My categories of questions were as follows:

- Pressures / perceived benefits of accreditation.
- Pedagogy
- Social aims
- Social exclusion
- ETD Practitioner identity
- Practitioner expertise
- Sites of practice
- Administrative procedures
- General

I planned to hold the interviews as open-ended and informally as possible. For this reason I wrote a number of questions for each of these categories which would serve as prompts for my interviews, but would not necessarily be rigidly followed. In general I asked questions about how things were before and after formal accreditation. (For the interview schedule refer to Appendix B.) Each interview was scheduled to last for approximately one hour. The interviews were all individual, except for the one with the ex-students of Case study B. Due to time constraints both on my part and theirs, I interviewed both these informants together. During each interview I both

took extensive and detailed notes and tape-recorded the interview. Data collection was held over the period of one month, based on the availability of my informants.

I also analysed documentary evidence from each organisation. In general this related to the organisational history, information about the courses, course material and curriculum. (For a description of the informants interview and documentary sources used, refer to appendix C).

### ***Possible sources of error or bias***

Mouton (1996) outlines possible sources of error in data collection.

Assumptions on the part of the informant about characteristics like the affiliation of the researcher may impact on the data collected. In my case, I had a dual role: that of researcher, but also that of employee of an organisation also offering non-formal adult education. Thus the distance between me and some of my informants was very small. I had easy access into the organisations that I wanted to study. However my position in an organisation that was also considering formalising its non-formal courses meant that, during the interviews, many of the informants gave me advice about how to go about the process of formalisation and how to avoid the pitfalls that they had stumbled upon.

The image of the researcher may impact on the data offered by informants. Mouton (1996) explains that the investigative paradigm is pervaded by profound conflicts of interest, values and feelings and actions. Mouton cites Douglas (1976) who found that suspicion and mistrust were the rule rather than the exception. Mouton (1996) argues that a researcher is often seen as an outsider, and intruder. This was also my experience in my research. I am not sure of the reason, but despite agreeing readily to be a case in my research, in general my informants seemed very reluctant to talk to me. Some seemed very anxious to get rid of me. One informant in particular said only positive things despite being described by another staff member as being someone 'who felt negatively about the changes'. Many of my informants tried to refer me to other people within their organisation who they claimed would be better able to answer questions in general or specific questions. At one point I sent some of my notes to an informant to check whether I had left anything out because my recording instrument had failed. He sent the notes back altered significantly and complained that I had misrepresented him and made the organisation look incompetent. However he was referring to parts of the interview that I did have on tape and had transcribed accurately. Some of the informants also asked me to view the input from other informants with suspicion, and even suggested that they needed to verify what others had said about their organisation.

The perceived distance between the researcher and participants may impact on the quality of data collected. Mouton (1996) refers to research, which shows that when the race of the interviewer is different from that of the participant, the participants' responses are often biased in favour of the race the interviewer belongs to. In my research most of the informants I interviewed are black, while I, the researcher, am white. This may have influenced both my, or my informants' perceptions.

Prejudices, expectations, attitudes, opinions and beliefs of the researcher often influence the final data. It is possible that the interviewer provides positive feedback to the interviewee, which has a definite effect on subsequent responses. An interviewer's systematic approval of a response could have a biasing effect on the information obtained (Mouton, 1996). I embarked on this research with specific hypotheses that I wanted to test. My own opinion on these may have influenced the information that the informants gave me. However, in general I felt that the consequences of formalisation are likely to be negative, but most of the informants seemed to believe that no negative consequences had occurred. From this it seems to me that the informants were not influenced by my opinion.

The level of motivation of the participant is one of the most important variables influencing the validity of the data collection process. This relates to the level of interest that the interviewee has in the topic and the level of perceived threat. In general the topic of discussion in this study seemed to evoke a lot of anxiety for the participants. Some of the students seemed not to want to admit any difficulty with course material, possibly because they thought this might impact on their assessment by their educators. Ex students in one case study had difficulty claiming that the course had changed at all, possibly not wanting to undermine their own training or out of loyalty to their teachers.

Mouton (1996) argues that a number of strategies can be used to minimise the sources of error, which are possible in each form of data collection. In my study I ensured anonymity of the informants by making sure that neither details of the organisation, nor the people who were interviewed would be released in my final report. Although there were requests from some participants that they be told what others had said, I kept that information confidential, unless the informant explicitly said that they did not mind. I was not able to keep the identity of the informants confidential from myself, but to counter any anxieties, I tried to establish good rapport with the informants. This was possible in some cases, but in others I found this very difficult, due to the time constraints, theirs and mine. I did not have a control group, since this is a strategy mainly used in experimental designs, but having two different case studies allowed me to make comparisons between different organisations in different contexts. My research was not covert, I

explicitly stated that I was doing research, what the aim of the research was and also why this was of interest to me. In this way I tried to make my interests explicit. While this kept me alert to my own possible biases, it may have influenced the types of responses I received from participants.

### **3.3.3 Data analysis**

Yin (1993) argues that distinctive strategies are needed for data analysis in qualitative research. Mouton (1996) outlines that the analysis of data in qualitative approaches focuses on understanding rather than explaining social actions and events within their particular settings and contexts. It strives to remain true to the natural setting of the actors and the concepts that they use to describe and understand themselves. It aims to construct with regard to the social world stories, accounts and theories that retain the internal meaning and coherence of the social phenomenon rather than breaking it up into its constituent components, and contextually valid accounts of social life rather than formally generated generalisable explanations. Analysis of cases means reconstructing the inherent significance structure and self-understanding of individuals by staying close to the subject (Mouton, 1886:169). In qualitative research, the overall coherence and meaning of the data is more important than the specific meaning of its parts. Methods of data analysis are more holistic, synthetic and interpretative (Mouton, 1996).

Once I had completed all the interviews I returned to the categories that I had used and coded the information according to these categories. Some of the categories were consolidated to reduce the number of categories, some were no longer useful, while some further categories emerged from the data.

The final list of categories that I used is as follows:

- Organisational identity
- Grounding principles of training
- Learners
- ETD practitioners
- Pedagogy
- Curriculum

## **3.4 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

Reliability refers to the “consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions” (Hammersley, 1992: 67 in Silverman, 2001). Although it is argued that the strength of qualitative research lies in its validity,

attention needs to be given to reliability as well. It is argued that the way to do this is by giving an accurate description of the procedure used (Kirk and Miller, 1986 in Silverman, 2001).

Yin (1993) argues that in case study designs reliability and validity (construct, internal and external) need to be considered. Construct validity deals with the use of instruments and measures used to operationalise the constructs of interest of a study. It is recommended that more than one measure be used for a construct. This means that one needs to use multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 1993). In my research I used triangulation of data collection. Although interviews were my main source of data, I was able to validate what informants had said using documentary evidence.

Internal and external validity are addressed by the appropriate use of theory. Theory is important in case studies in order to: select the cases to be studied in the first place; specify what is being explored in exploratory studies; define a complete and appropriate description when doing descriptive case studies; stipulate rival theories in explanatory case studies and generalise the results to other cases (Yin, 1993). Theory is not only helpful in designing a case study, it later becomes a vehicle for generalising a case study's results (Yin, 1993). By using the relevant literature to design my questions, I was able to compare what I found in my case studies, to the literature. By specifying theoretical relationships from which generalisations can be made, I enhanced external validity.

Qualitative methods can be criticised regarding validity since it is possible to use data selectively to give substance to certain claims without reference to contradictory data (Silverman, 2001). It is very important to include data, which does not fall so easily into the analysis offered. In my case I found data that differed significantly from what the literature predicted. I have included this contradictory data in my research findings and have considered alternative explanations. Yin (1993) argues that case studies can be improved by having data presented as disentangled as possible from interpretation.

Reliability is achieved through the following of formal case study protocols and the development of a case study database. These protocols are useful in ensuring that the same process is followed in multiple cases. The database separates the evidence from the interpretation of the evidence (Yin, 1993). It was very difficult for me to present my data without simultaneously interpreting it. In fact even at the level of interviews my own interpretation has impacted on my notes or on asking follow up questions. This is one of the shortcomings of case studies noted by Yin (1993). To improve reliability I have kept copies of the recordings of my interviews. For the size of the study, it was not necessary to transcribe each interview. It is difficult to make copies of

transcripts available to independent individuals due to the ethical consideration of anonymity, which I have promised to my informants.

Yin (1993) argues that it is preferable for researchers to emulate the scientific method in case studies. By this he does not mean that case studies are the same as doing science, merely that if the same procedures of scientific method are used, one is likely to have better quality research. These procedures are the posing of clear questions, the development of a formal research design, the use of theory and reviews of previous research to develop hypotheses and rival hypotheses, the collection of empirical data to test these hypotheses and rival hypotheses, the assembling of a database - independent of any narrative report, interpretations and conclusions - which can be inspected by third parties, and the conduct of quantitative and/or qualitative analysis, depending on the topic and research design.

University of Cape Town

# CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

## 4.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE CASE STUDIES

### 4.1.1 Case study A:

This is a unit of the one of the departments of a Cape Town based university. The organisation was started in 1997. The organisation strives to build and sustain the capacity of communities to participate effectively in democratic governance, by assisting in the training and development of leadership. This aim is fulfilled by three strategies, namely capacity building of community leaders; economic literacy, and education and the facilitation of community participation. (Annual report, 2000) Firstly it facilitates local partnerships between civil society and local government in four provinces (Eastern Cape; KwaZulu Natal; North West province and the Northern province); by working with community representatives (of Community based organisations (CBOs), NGOs, civics, RDP (Reconstruction and development programme) forums, religious organisations and others) in districts and small municipalities to build their understanding and skills in order to interface with government on an equal footing. It facilitates local partnership programmes in the development of Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) involving all stakeholders (community leaders, NGOs, CBOs, the business community, town officials and councillors) and clarifying development goals and roles. Secondly it aims to enable participants to understand the structure of the economy and the macro-economic plan (Growth, employment and redistribution - GEAR) and how it effects local communities, sectors and government budgets, and how budgets work. It runs economic literacy and advocacy workshops for NGOs, CBOs, government personnel and communities upon request, to empower communities, build anti-poverty coalitions and hold elected officials accountable after elections. Finally it offers a Diploma Course in economic literacy and community development with teams of people from local municipalities.

The diploma course consists of five one-week residential training phases with field practice assignments after each phase. According to the submission of new programmes/qualifications to the Council on Higher Education for approval and accreditation, the purpose of the programme is "to facilitate good governance by building capacity of people in disadvantaged communities, particularly in community based organisations towards active citizenship through the provision of training in the application of development economics and budgets". It aims to develop an understanding of how micro and macro economic issues affect the marginalised and analyse various approaches to building self-reliance; to develop partnerships with local government in order to access resources and address apartheid backlogs, and to sustain coalitions and strong community based organisations and lobby government at all levels on community priorities.

Finally, the organisation also researches and produces publications, which cover economic and budgetary issues. This supports the local partnership project and economic literacy and community development course.

The organisation was originally based in its own premises in Observatory in Cape Town, close to many other NGOs and the training was done in the rural areas or in a central place near the rural areas that the participants came from. In the last two years the programme has moved its offices to the university and is now housed within the department of which it is a part. The Diploma Course in Community Development is now also being run by means of five one-week residential blocks at the university, and fieldwork and experiential learning in the organisations that the participants are based in.

#### **4.1.2 Case study B:**

This is an independent educational non-profit organisation, specialising in the teaching of performing arts (Marketing brochure). It is based in Cape Town. It was established in 1987 by a theatre director and performing arts teacher based at a nearby university. Initially it was started in order to offer a one-year course to learners, who had been "excluded by apartheid from developing themselves at formal educational institutions" (Marketing brochure). This vocational training programme is still the core function of the organisation. Other projects, including an outreach programme, which teaches performing arts and income-generating projects for ex-students, which had been informally run by staff members, have been added as separate formal projects to this central function. The management of the cultural centre in Langa and a corporate income generating project, which assist ex-students to become financially self sufficient, have also been added as other formal projects in addition to the vocational training programme. The vocational training programme has a very strong practical emphasis. Apart from class work learners tour in theatre-in-education projects to schools and community centres and perform in one of Cape Town's major theatres. Project themes are of interest to the learners' communities (Marketing brochure). The training programme prides itself on having 'the best teachers in the industry' (The ex-director, Informant 14).

The vocational training programme aims to provide an environment of equity and diversity which gives access to a range of performance skills, life skills and community development capacities. Through their work staff seek to ensure understanding of socially relevant issues, to enhance the physical and emotional well being of learners and to equip learners for meaningful employment or further study. Their objectives are "to enable learners to perform creatively within the performing arts industry, to use theatre techniques to facilitate healing in society and to use the power of the performing arts as a means of communication, empowerment and capacity development,

transferring information, development of disadvantaged sectors of society" (Marketing brochure). The vocational training programme includes courses in Acting, Voice and speech, Movement, Singing and Music, African dance, Scriptwriting, Cultural studies, Life Skills, Literacy and Computer Skills (Progress report, 2000). The course is compliant with the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) requirements. The vocational programme has national certification at Level 5, which the organisation believes enhances chances of employment and further studies (Marketing brochure). The vocational training course includes placements in workplaces and has forged links with other role-players in the performing arts and adult education field.

## **4.2 FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS**

### **4.2.1 Case study A**

#### ***Organisational identity***

The organisation was started in 1997 as a unit of one of the departments in a Cape Town university. One of the original trainers explained how the organisation initially started by facilitating one-day economic literacy training in communities. The aim of these workshops was mainly to encourage advocacy and lobbying and to raise awareness about the national debt (Informant 3). Initially the focus was mainly on "getting the job done" and tied up with being a "sound and relevant actor in the development field" (Documentary source 1 - Annual report, 2000). The original trainer outlined how initially, for the first three to four months, the choice of province, organisation and sector was done in a very random way depending on the whim of the project staff and requests from communities and broad based organisations like Congress of South Africa Trade Unions (COSATU). Thereafter, it became quite selective. "We chose the provinces with the poorest socio-economic profiles" (Informant 3).

In 2000 the training became formalised in to a course, which was called the Economic Literacy and Community Transformation (ELCT) course. It consisted of five modules and was offered in three locations, in the rural areas or in a central place near the rural areas that the participants came from. It included participants from the Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Western Cape, KwaZulu Natal, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Northern Province and North West Province (Annual report 2000).

During the year 2000, the offices of the organisation were moved to the department of the university. Although the organisation had always been a part of the university, it was originally based in its own offices in Observatory, which has a large NGO population. The previous director set the project up there because she believed that explicit connection with the university could

change the culture and focus of training. "If you stay outside - you can do your training in Parliament or Timbuktu where the people are or where the action is to happen" (Informant 6). However, the current director of the organisation explained that this relocation was motivated by practical considerations and related to the current director having other responsibilities at the university (Informant 1).

After a process of organisational development and an evaluation of the training course, it was decided that greater interdependence of the partnership programme and the ELCT course would fulfil the aim of the organisation of capacity building of community representatives. This accounted for the focus of the training course on the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu Natal and the Northern Province, which were the areas that the partnership programme was focussing on.

It was also decided to formalise certain aspects of the course and seek formal accreditation for it. The training manager explained that the name of the course was changed to Economic Literacy and Community Development course (ELCD), on the request of the Council for Higher Education (Informant 2). The course consists of 5 phases with 9 modules encompassing 'communication and information management'; 'numeracy and finance'; 'development economics (micro)'; 'training design and facilitation'; 'development economics (macro)'; 'local government, advocacy and lobbying'; 'organisational development, including strategic planning' (which are being presented at the university) and a research project and 'workplace learning' (which is non-residential). The training manager (Informant 2) argues that having the course at the university improves access to resources for training (for example, libraries and computer labs and the writing centre). The ex-trainer (Informant 3) argues that it also gives the participants access to information about further training and job opportunities. Not only are they exposed to this information, the course counts as credit for further training. It is also argued that the move to the university has also decreased the cost to the organisation. It was expensive to hold the course in rural areas where accommodation and transport of both learners and educators had to be funded. Planning training in remote rural areas also presented certain logistical problems, which are avoided by running the training at the university, which is set up as a training centre (Informants 2 & 3).

One of the reasons given for pursuing accreditation was the sense of value of their training. After the evaluation of the course during 2000, there was a clear sense of the value of the information that was being imparted to the participants, but the sustainability of the way it was being done, was questioned. Formalisation of the course and integration with other areas of work was seen to improve the long-term effects of the training. The current director commented that "we are doing that much work we may as well get formal recognition" (Informant 1).

### *Conclusion*

The informants interviewed feel that the formalisation of the training course and the relocation of the organisational offices and the training to the university do not represent a shift in purpose or identity of the organisation. Rather it is seen as the manifestation of the maturing of the organisation from one in a “pioneering phase to a more formalised and integrated organisation” (Annual report, 2000). The organisation also feels that getting recognition for the quality of the teaching and learning has positive implications both for the learners and for the organisation.

Nonetheless, I believe that this formalisation and relocation do have implications for the “feel” of the organisation and the training course. The ex-trainer did agree that this was a possibility. He claimed that “compromises” have had to be made when moving the organisation and offering the training at the university. However, he feels that the organisation has done what was necessary to maintain its identity. “We are trying hard to make sure that this new system does not defeat our purposes” (Informant 3). For me the fact that the name of the course was changed on the request or recommendation of the Council for Higher Education indicates that the identity and the perceived aim of the course (shifting the emphasis from transformation to development) is now influenced by external factors.

### ***Grounding principles of the training***

In the past the aim of the training was for communities to understand budgets and to assist the community to make direct input into the local government processes. In some cases the training culminated in a strategic planning event for the community and local government and kick-started a process of collaboration. Thus the training had a purpose beyond the acquisition of knowledge (Informant 3).

This focus on the aims beyond the acquisition of knowledge has not changed. The organisation strives to build and sustain the capacity of communities to participate effectively in democratic governance, by assisting in the training and development of leadership. This aim is fulfilled by 3 strategies, namely capacity building of community leaders; economic literacy and education and the facilitation of community participation. (Annual report, 2000) The training offered in the Economic Literacy and Community Development course is directly related to these project aims. Thus the primary purpose of the training is still to fulfil the projects developmental aims and not merely for the transfer of knowledge to the learners (Annual report, 2000). For example, in order to make sure that what is taught is in line with the ethos of the organisation briefing sessions were held with the economists who were responsible for the modules on development economics (Informant 1).

The aim of the course is to build the capacity of the people on the course and thus community leadership. In fact the ELCT course (run in 2000) was explicitly changed with the aim of integration of the three project areas. In this way the training has become even more integral to community development. The training is directly aimed at improving the ability of the participants to fulfil the aims of the project (Annual report, 2000; Informant 1). The current director feels that although these objectives may have been clear in the head of one or two of the staff members in the past, the core objectives were not clear and it was not a vision shared by all those involved in the training (Informant 1). But when the staff engaged in a year long, collective process of organisational development, they were pressurised to think about these issues and to clarify their vision. When the training was redesigned it pressurised the organisation to think about how they constructed the course. They revisited the aims of the course, each module in the course and even each session in the module (Informant 2). The current director feels this was an empowering process for staff and resulted in a more unified approach to the training (Informant 1).

There is an assumption that each participant will use the knowledge and skills they acquire in the training to effect change in their own organisations or communities. The ex-trainers explained how in the past a learning contract had been used to secure commitment from the participants to implement their learning in their organisation (Informant 3). However these learning contracts are no longer a part of the process. Although nothing formal of this nature is signed, the training manager explained that a set of ground rules are agreed with the learners at the beginning of their course which would include the expectation from the educators that this information and skills will be used in their organisations (Informant 2). In fact some of the assessment tasks require practical implementation of learning in their organisations (Informant 1; Informant 2).

Thus the formalisation process is not seen as emphasising knowledge for knowledge sake. Instead accreditation is seen as way of ensuring the quality of the training i.e. "making a good offering to the students" and to formalising the link between the training and the project goals (Informant 1).

The current director believes that the formalising of the course to secure a qualification for the learners fulfils a secondary aim, which is to give participants access to formal learning and recognition for what they have learnt in their community work. Most of the participants, at whom this training is directed, have in the past had no access to formal education. "An underlying aim of the course is the search for equity for black people and the arena of qualifications is one arena in which this can manifest" (Informant 1). In this way this course aims to offer both equity and

access to further education. The course is pitched at Level 5 on the NQF, and is described as one year post matric and a bridging course before university (Informant 2). The training course facilitates access to tertiary education because it is pitched at Level 5 on the NQF and gives access to learners who have not completed their formal schooling, by recognising their prior learning in informal contexts in their communities (Informant 1).

### *Conclusion*

The grounding principles of the training are deeply embedded in the aim of the organisation as a whole. In this way it is clear that the course does not emphasise the acquisition of knowledge for knowledge sake. The knowledge is seen as a tool for the development of the learners' home communities.

However, there is a slight shift in the identity of the course, to incorporate more centrally a notion of educational/academic progression. By speaking of the course in terms of how it articulates with formal schooling and higher education, the course serves the aim of facilitating academic progression for learners. This is seen within the context of redress for people who have been denied access to formal education and as such is also still in line with the grounding principles of the organisation.

### **Learners**

The organisation always worked in the areas of the poorest of the poor. Initially the one-day economic literacy training programmes were run in different provinces and different organisations chosen in quite a random way. Training was done in rural areas in Afrikaans and Xhosa (Informant 3).

The provinces in which the organisation currently works have been chosen as those with the poorest socio-economic profile. This relates directly to their social aim of empowering poor people with knowledge to improve their circumstances. Although the participants for the training currently still come from these areas with the poorest socio-economic profile, with time the selection of the participants has become more stringent. Currently the only people that are eligible for the training are those from the areas in which the organisation runs their partnership programme (Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and the Northern Province). The participants have to be working in community organisations as community workers, either as paid employees or as volunteers (Informant 3).

Because the accreditation of the course is done through the Council for Higher Education, the criteria for acceptance on to the course are theoretically the same as for a tertiary institution.

That means that a Matric certificate is required (Submission of new programmes/qualifications to the Council on Higher Education for approval and accreditation). However, the organisations sees it as important to recognise the prior learning of the participants and has managed to gain a concession of being allowed to accept learners at varying levels of academic experience, ranging from grade 10 to Matric/grade 12 (Informant 3).

However the criteria for acceptance to the course were stipulated up front in the marketing brochure, and were fairly strict in accordance with the requirement of the faculty under which the training is run (Informant 2). They were outlined as follows: possess a grade 12 certificate (Matric); work with a CBO, NGO or local government department; speak, read and write English; have permission and support from their organisation and/or employer; commit themselves to all seven phases (with full-time residential attendance needed in five of the phases) and complete all fieldwork assignments; consist of teams from the same geographic area or from the same organisation or sector. The training manager explained that as a result "the quality of the applicants was good, but the number of applicants was not as high as we had wanted". The resultant selection process between applicants was thus not very severe (Informant 2). This low number of applicants may have been as a result of interested people not applying because they did not think that they were eligible.

An evaluation of the previous course had elicited evidence of pressure from previous participants for the formal accreditation of the course (Informant 2; Informant 1). For one of the learners that I interviewed this course represents upward mobility in his organisation. He is currently a volunteer, but would like to use this course to improve his chances of getting a job. He would be willing to work in any organisation, not only the one of which he is currently a member (Informant 4).

One of the implications of moving the training to the university as opposed to running it in the provinces is that instead of reaching 120 participants per year, only 45 to 50 participants are reached. Not only does that mean fewer people have access to the training, it also drives up the cost per participant (Informant 3). It is argued that the quality of the interactions between participants from different regions is an advantage stemming from integrated training at a central place (Informant 3).

A change in the type of participants that are now on the course is that some participants are local councillors of their communities. This represents a change in the way community development work is seen. From empowering communities to engage with local councils, the course now

includes training for local councillors, who are representatives of the community, to achieve their role in local government (Informant 3).

Currently fees are payable by participants. They have to pay R1500, which is one eighth of what the training actually costs. Staff members believe that money constraints did not exclude anyone who applied for the most recent course, in 2001. A variety of financial options were available to learners. Some learners were given bursaries, some learners' fees were paid by their organisation, and some were given the opportunity to pay back their loans to the organisation by agreeing to run workshops for it in their areas. Some learners were only expected to pay half the fee (Informant 2).

### *Conclusion*

The central aims of the training have not changed and the commitment to working with community workers in the poorest areas of the country is still central to the aims of the training.

However a number of factors, which may impact on the type of learners coming to the course, have changed. The increased distance that needs to be travelled to get the university in Cape Town may prevent some people, especially women who have family commitments, from attending. The fact that the course is run in English may deter some participants who may have been more comfortable in Afrikaans or Xhosa. The fees that are being charged may prevent some people from applying to attend the course. The sense that this is a university course may also intimidate some people. The assumption of some of the participants that the course will improve their chances of finding formal employment, may motivate those who would not have been drawn to the course before.

In this way the changes to the course may have unintentional impact on the group of people who benefit from this course. Although the course is still fulfilling its original aims to work in the poorest districts, it is possibly no longer working with the poorest people in those districts. The more stringent entrance requirements are likely to exclude them. The move to including local councillors is also likely to bring on board an aspirant middle class.

### ***ETD Practitioners***

The founding of the organisation was facilitated by the founder meeting particular people who shared her vision (Informant 6). The previous director's expertise was based on contextual understanding of issues relating to poverty in the African and international context. Originally those who were involved with the teaching were also expected to have this contextual

understanding. In the past the trainers trained in all the components of the course (Informant 6; Informant 3).

The current director said that there had been little synergy between the trainers on the course in the past. Some of the trainers being used in the past were external, not on the staff of the organisation. She saw this as a threat to the ability of the organisation to project its vision (Informant 1).

There has been a shift in the people that work in the project both as co-ordinators and educators. The process seems to have been a two-way process, with people with different expertise and understanding changing the way training is done, and new ways of thinking about training requiring different people to do the training. For example, the current director was able to spearhead the process of formalisation of the course because she is someone who is aware of the issues underlying formalisation of training and accreditation of training on the NQF/SAQA (Informant 1).

Now the role of the teaching staff has also changed. There was a gradual shift to using more experienced specialist trainers who helped with the drafting and the writing the ELCT course (Informant 3). Since the accreditation with the Council for Higher Education, there was a need now to bring in people who are seen to be experts in economics (Informant 3). The Council for Higher Education has certain stipulations of what academic level a person has to have achieved to teach at certain levels (Informant 1). The qualification of the staff involved in the programme had to be stipulated in the submission of new programmes/qualifications to the Council on Higher Education for approval and accreditation. Although the director had explained to me that the organisation had negotiated with the institution to take into account both the trainers' experience and not only their academic qualifications (Informant 1), it would seem that all staff have a high level of academic qualifications. Most of the people listed as staff on the project had Masters degrees, while one had a Doctorate, one was completing his Masters and one had an Honours degree.

The course is modularised and a person or organisation seen to be an expert in that field teaches each module (Informant 1; Informant 2). This leads to much greater specialisation in the teaching staff with the emphasis shifting to expertise of the trainers being based on their knowledge of the particular subject area (Informant 3). In addition the educators that are now being used are "qualified to teach" (Informant 3). There is a commitment to developing existing staff to be able to present those components that they are currently not able to present in the long term (Informant 1). However, in the short term there was a need to "buy in" qualified staff in the short term where

such expertise did not exist within the organisation (Informant 1). This is borne out by the fact that one of the former senior trainers in the project is now working in a different area of the project, because his interest shifted and he no longer sees himself as an expert in teaching methodology (Informant 3).

The roles of the ETD practitioners have also shifted. With formalisation, and a consequent greater focus on assessment, greater attention needs to be paid to record keeping. "It does take energy, capacity, space" (Informant 2).

### *Conclusion*

There is certainly a change in the practitioners used to teach the course. Whereas in the past the entire course was taught by one person, someone seen to be an expert in that field now teaches each module of the course. In addition, certain demands are being made in terms of the academic qualifications of those responsible for teaching on the course. Despite these new demands, the organisation strives to ensure that the ethos of the training is not undermined.

The role of the ETD practitioner has also changed. This is both in terms of being seen as more expert in a specialised field and greater focus on administrative tasks associated with formalisation of the course.

### ***Pedagogy***

The ex-trainer explained that the previous director was seen to have a commitment to informal education. At the inception of the organisation, one-day economic literacy training with no follow-up comprised the bulk of the training. This served to popularise the work of the organisation. The aim of these workshops was to encourage advocacy and lobbying and to raise awareness about the national debt. The training was based on the Freirean approach. This particular methodology implied a particular social purpose and a recognition that education is not value free and has an agenda (Informant 3). The previous director explained that in this case it was "to develop the capacity of the poorest of the poor to engage with budgets to improve their material conditions" (Informant 6). The focus was more on advocacy and conscientising rather than education for accreditation.

The training made use of a simulation game, and was highly experiential. There was an implicit assumption that people came to workshops with their own understanding/ experience of the topic. Although the methodology was participatory, it did recognise that there was particular knowledge to which the participants did not have access. The workshops were an opportunity for them to acquire that. There was a strong focus on the aim of the training and a sense "that training for

training sake" was not the point. The ex-director explained that she always asked "but training for what?" (Informant 6). At this stage no assessment was done of the learning that participants had achieved (Informant 2; Informant 6).

After this initial period the course was formalised. And in 2000 a five-phase residential programme called the Economic Literacy and Community Transformation (ELCT) course was run (Informant 3). The current course (March 2001 – June 2002) runs over 18 months in six phases, each a week long, run on campus at the university (Informant 2).

The emphasis in the training is that it had to have a direct practical use to participants. In line with outcomes-based education, the emphasis is now placed on the participants being able to display a skill, which will be used in the practical application of what they had learnt in development work in their own communities, instead of just focussing on the participants understanding the concepts. Part of the design process involved designing assessment criteria and assessment tasks, which assess this displayed behaviour. The focus has thus shifted to the need for the participants to show that they have learnt a skill (Informant 2).

Currently a variety of pedagogic styles are being employed. There is no demand or assumption that one style of teaching methodology is the only way to teach. The pedagogic style used in a particular module depends on the trainer who has been employed to teach that module (Informant 2, Informant 7; Informant 8). Some phases are presented using experiential methodology, while others are presented in a more "lecture " format (Informant 2, Informant 7; Informant 8). Course readers are a feature of some of the modules being offered (Course reader: Development economics and, Course reader: Communications).

Some educators clearly understand the basis for outcomes-based education (Informant 1, Informant 2, and Informant 8), while others claim not to have any idea of what it means (Informant 7). Most of the staff equate "outcomes-based" education to learner centred education (Informant 1, Informant 2, Informant 8). There is a sense that some material is more difficult to make learner-centred, and that more time or effort is required to do this. This particularly relates to economics (Informant 2). This is in contrast with previous workshop methodology in which the simulation game was used to teach that information experientially (Informant 3; Informant 6).

Assessment is a feature of both the Economic Literacy and Community Transformation (ELCT) course run in 2000 and the current Economic Literacy and Community Development (ELCD) course. The current director believes that in the ELCT course, this assessment was subjective, with no clear criteria on which to base assessment (Informant 1), whereas in the current course

several tasks are assessed in each module and the assessment criteria are made explicit. Assessment activities are negotiated with the participants. This means that the participants can prepare their assignments in relation to the criteria (Informant 2; Informant 8). Assessment is done by means of a variety of assessment methods, including self assessment, peer assessment and assessment by the trainer. Assessment is both individual and in groups, also both written and verbal (Informant 1).

The director explained that the assessment is "not about regurgitating the content, but using knowledge in an applied setting". The principle of assessment is showing applied learning and understanding of critical concepts. Assessment tasks directly evaluate learners' ability to do those things that they were supposed to have learnt, for example, run a workshop. In addition when case studies are used, these case studies often represent the actual situations the participants find themselves in. This is related to the aim of the course, which is learning for application in their own communities. Integrated assessment is used in all modules. Thus the central theme of the training is used as the context for assessments in all other modules as well (Informant 8).

There is also a research project and workplace learning, which is non-residential. The research project has a theoretical component, but also assesses the learners as they apply what they have learnt in their organisation. The learners are thus assessed on written research and assessed as they work (Informant 8). In this way the course content is integrated into the work that the learners do in their communities.

The communication and gender trainers feel that the assessment tools are designed to facilitate learning for the participants. The power dynamic which is always present in assessment situations is diminished by the explicitness of the assessment criteria, the negotiation of the assessment tasks and the fact that participants are also given the opportunity to submit drafts to their assignments, if they feel unsure about what is expected. Feedback is then given by the trainer and returned to the participant (Informant 1; Informant 8).

Currently feedback on assessment activities overlaps between two systems. Feedback is expressed both in terms of percentages and outcomes achieved. The use of percentages is necessary for the course to be in line with the requirements of the university (Informant 2).

### *Conclusion*

The formalisation of the course does not seem to introduce the need for a specific style of pedagogy. The same experiential and group-work methods, which were used originally, are still

being used in some modules. However, there is an introduction of a more lecture style methodology and the introduction of course readers, which require a high level of reading skills.

The introduction of assessment is a major shift in the pedagogic mode. With assessment outcomes being stipulated up front, this calls for a performance based pedagogy.

### **Curriculum**

In the past the training was based very much on everyday knowledge – i.e. understanding the budget so that poor people could access the money they were eligible for and lobby for appropriate budgets. At this initial stage the training was economic literacy workshops, which were short workshops, with a very practical aim, to increase understanding for practical implications. In the past the course content covered economic literacy and a vague element of community development. But this was not well structured. “It was not clear how the pieces fitted together” (Informant 3).

The Economic Literacy and Community Transformation (ELCT) course (which was run in 2000) consisted of five modules. They covered ‘developing critical consciousness and community identity’; ‘analysing community needs and ways of empowerment’; ‘economic analysis from the local to global context’; ‘organisational development and management capacities’; ‘dynamics of power, politics, lobbying and partnerships’ (Annual report: 2000). The course content of the current course was rethought as part of the evaluation of the project in 2000 (Informant 1). The teaching staff all claim that the changes in the course content were not primarily a result of the demands of the formalisation process, but were to bring the course more in line with the aim of the organisation. It is argued that the course content has clear direct links to the aims of the project as a whole – i.e. advocacy in communities (Informant 3).

However, the formalisation of the course demanded outlining which courses were fundamental, core and elective components of the course (Informant 2). The modules for the Economic Literacy and Community Development (ELCD) course were divided between these three components.

In this case the “Fundamentals” are “Communication and Information Management” and “Numeracy”. These were not covered in the ELCT course (Informant 2). The communication course is very heavily related to the communication needed in their community work context. The course focuses on both written and oral communication. The assessment task of this module is writing a funding proposal. This is a very practical task that would be of use to the organisations

that the learners work in (Informant 8). The Numeracy course is integrated into the development economics. Thus this module was also integrated and context specific.

The distinction between "core" and "electives" is not very clear. However the "core" component of the course is seen as Development economics since this is the area, which was covered in previous versions of the training. The modules on "local government, advocacy and lobbying" were seen as electives, although these modules could also have been seen as core since they are central to the aims of the organisation (Informant 2).

Adding of new areas of knowledge was seen as making the course more holistic. The knowledge is seen to be contextual, and is taught within the context that it will be used. This is seen in the way that the Numeracy was not kept separate from the development economics. But the training manager said that she is still not sure whether the university will be satisfied by the collapse of two separate modules into one focus area (Informant 2).

#### *Conclusion*

The knowledge areas have changed since the formalisation of the course. Initially the training was very short. With the formalisation of the training into the ELCT course, more knowledge areas were added. With the subsequent accreditation of the ELCD course, these knowledge areas have been changed to bring them in line with the expectations of the Council. This saw the introduction of communication and numeracy and a reduction in time spent on developing critical consciousness, community identity and analysing community needs. In general there seems to be a reduction in the critical components to the course.

### **4.2.2 Case study B**

#### ***Organisational identity***

Originally the organisation was started in order to offer a parallel degree course in performing arts for black students. It was set up as a centre to offer training of equal standard to that of a university to people from disadvantaged backgrounds at a reasonable cost to the students. This was in opposition to the apartheid government, and at the time it was a 'very adventurous thing to do' (Ex director). Initially the work was done in an ad hoc way in townships (Informant 14).

The original success of the organisation in getting funding was due to their identity as an organisation, which articulated struggle issues. This gave them credibility with funders. In addition, the fact that they were teaching transferable skills was also important (Informant 14).

In the past the vocational training programme was managed by a committee. All teaching staff were members of the management committee which ran the vocational training programme.

Currently most of the staff refer to the organisation as a 'school'. The organisation is seen as a continuation of secondary education. It is not a skills centre for the unemployed, the students come for training from high school. In this way, the training builds continuity between school and higher education. Some students even continue their Matric studies while at the organisation (Informant 13). This reinforces the idea of this training as a continuation of schooling.

The course is seen as a kind of bridging course, both by ex-students and some staff members. The ex-students feel that it is important that the education department has now registered this course (Informant 11; Informant 12). The organisation has also made an agreement with the local tertiary institution that it will accept students who have completed this training, although these students are only accepted on the basis of an audition. The skills and knowledge that they have acquired during their training would stand them in good stead for this audition (Informant 13). Ex students also see this as an important development, although there have been students in the past who have been accepted by the local university after completing their training at this organisation.

Recently the identity of the organisation has changed to become a more business-like entity. This is achieved both by the way the people in the organisation see the organisation, as well as by the way in which the organisation is structured.

The structure of the organisation has recently changed. The vocational training remains the central function of the organisation but the responsibility for the management of the programme now rests with one person only. The programme manager believes that this improves accountability because everybody is clear "where the buck stops" (Informant 13). Other people, who were on the management committee before, now have to create for themselves income-generating projects. After covering their own salaries and the costs of the project, they forward the 'profits' to the vocational training programme (Informant 10).

The organisation has also recently applied for and been awarded section 18A status which allows it to generate income to cover its own costs to supplement funds raised from donors. The director believes that by making the organisation less dependent on fundraising, it ensures greater sustainability for the project (Informant 10). The director believes that these projects have positive spin-offs for ex-students as well. Some ex-students can become involved in these

projects which in turn have the potential to generate income for them (Informant 10). In this way entrepreneurship is fostered amongst ex-students.

The way the organisation is spoken about is also more business like. For example, the director explained that the organisation has a “niche market” and that it aims not to overlap services where these may already exist. They are registered with SAQA as a Level 5 provider. The director feels that this credibility enables them to compete with any that other schools that may be set up just for drama (Informant 10).

Fundraising continues to be an important area of focus for NGOs. NGOs need to continue to keep up to date with the demands of funders. Some of the staff feel that formal accreditation increases chances of getting funding. “NGOs are in a quandary about what to do to get money while we are doing valuable training” (Informant 9). This belief is in direct opposition to what was said by the programme director and the director. Both of these said that the funding scenario has not been improved by accreditation (Informant 10; Informant 13).

Others in the organisation have noted that money becomes a greater concern however once formalisation is in place. The availability of funding and the support of the funders were absolutely essential to the success of the registration of the course on the NQF and with the education department. Registration depends on being able to show that the organisation has money to sustain itself for a certain period of time. Without the support of the funders it would also not have been possible to support the salary of one full-time person required to pursue accreditation. The programme managers explained that the gaining of, and maintenance of accreditation is a huge time consuming task. The programme manager takes full responsibility for this, but does not have time to engage in other work, like engaging in other income generating projects. “Registration is a costly endeavour” (Informant 13). The vocational training programme is not financially self-sustainable, thus it needs the help of other projects within the organisation (Informant 10).

No funding is received from the Education Department to assist the organisation, but the programme manager explains that “they insist on all this paperwork to maintain our registration with them”. These are the disadvantages of registration with the Education Department (Informant 13).

The idea of being an African or South African organisation is still important to the identity of the organisation. Registration with SAQA gives a local certificate. And there is a sense of appropriateness of using South African generated standards rather than the international ones

that used to be standard and which are still being used by many other performing arts schools (Informant 10).

### *Conclusion*

There has been a shift in the identity of the organisation. In the past being separate from the formal education system of the government was one of the main characteristics of NGOs. Now that sense of separation does not seem to be that important to the organisation. In fact the registration with both SAQA and the Education Department represents working together directly with the government. The identity of the organisation is also more closely linked with that of formal education, and many staff members see the aim of the course as educational progression.

The organisational identity has also taken on several more business –like features. It is not clear whether this is a result of the formalisation of the training for SAQA accreditation or whether this is merely as a result of new management.

One of the main areas of concern for NGOs is always funding. Some of the changes in the organisation may be due to real or perceived demands from funders. For example, there may be an assumption that there is potential to get funds from the government. Being more business-like also promotes financial sustainability.

### ***Grounding principles of the training***

Initially the organisation served a central role by “filling the gaps” (Informant 9) that existed during apartheid, by offering services to those un-serviced by formal institutions during that time. It also specifically tailored what was offered to the needs of those marginalised. Staff do not see it as “just” another drama school. In this way the organisation brings a particular focus to performing arts education, which represents its social purpose and reflects the types of students that they wish to target.

Currently, the organisation is specifically concerned with the acquisition of performing arts skills. However, its marketing brochure refers directly to facilitating access and mobility and progression within education, training and career paths, enhancing education and training, accelerating redress of past unfair discrimination of education, training and employment opportunities. Only later is the particular learning area – performing arts education – referred to. Thus one of the central aims of the training is to create employment opportunities for current and ex-learners (Marketing brochure).

The ex-director indicated that there is sometimes a concern that standards may be making the training a bit “pale” - an assumption that standards are equivalent with “being European” (Informant 14). However, she felt that it is important to keep in mind where the organisation has come from.

In general there is more emphasis on employment opportunities or preparing students and ex-students for work. The organisation has a very good track record of students getting work after completing training, but the emphasis has shifted somewhat with the organisation taking a more active role in work-placements for students as part of the training course (Informant 13).

The programme manager feels that employment opportunities are improved by this course. The organisation has a responsibility to give the learners the “basics”. Although it is recognised that people all learn on the job, it is the responsibility of the organisation to give them the basics so that they can access work. Sometimes it is difficult for those who have formal qualifications to recognise the impact that this makes on job opportunities. It is easy to assume all the success in getting a job rests on the ability to “do the job”. She believes that having a certificate that is recognised is very important to securing work (Informant 13).

“What counts in the end for the students is getting a job, and the question is how best to facilitate this – either by mean of an accredited certificate or by means of skills which will prepare them for an audition ” (Informant 13).

There is recognition of a shift in the locus of the credibility of the training offered. The credibility of the course used to lie in the organisation’s credibility as a provider. The credibility has now shifted to being more external, resting with a national system of standards.

As with Case study A there is a sense that since the organisation is providing good quality education, it may as well get accredited for courses, particularly since the standard of teaching at the organisation is as good as at university. The director believes that one of the main differences between the course at this organisation and that of the university is that from a university you get a “piece of paper” (Informant 13).

The staff interviewed comment on the amount of people that have been trained and who have good skills, but no certificate. “They have many skills – but no piece of paper to say what they have done” (Informant 9). The staff are not only referring to recognition for the student, but also for the organisation. There is a sense that the organisation benefits from having the quality of its work recognised by those in the formal sector (Informant 9; Informant 10).

### *Conclusion*

Originally the aim of the course was to facilitate access to education for those who were being excluded by apartheid legislation and context. In this way articulating "struggle" concerns was seen as important. Currently the focus has shifted to increasing opportunities for employment for students.

The organisation also feels that getting recognition for the quality of the course being offered is an important function, which benefits both the learners and the organisation.

### **Learners**

When the organisation was started it was specifically aimed at offering high level performing arts education to black students who were unable to attend university (Informant 14). In the past the focus was on black African students, now 'black' is seen in a broader context, i.e. including "coloured" students.

Participants are accepted onto the course on the basis of their school results (either grade 10 or Matric / grade 12), an assessment of their literacy as well as an audition (Informant 13).

Fees were charged for the first time in 2000. This reduced the amount of potential learners who applied for places in the training programme (Progress report 2000). Although students are being charged to attend the training, it is emphasised that talent is not overlooked (Informant 13). If students are not able to pay, the organisation sometimes contracts them to do some work for it in a project after completion of the course. In this way they are able to pay back some of their fees.

The informants talk about changes that have occurred in the student group in a very contradictory way. For example, some say that the students are different, because now a matric is required (Informant 9), while others mention "engaging with raw talent" (Informant 13). Most of the informants stated that they very rarely turn students away and most are at pains to emphasise the inclusive nature of the course (informant 9, Informant 10, Informant 13). Being a level 5 course on the NQF, the official requirement is that the learners entering the course should have a matric. However, the educators believe that they have to recognise prior learning (Informant 13).

### *Conclusion*

It seems that the learners who are accepted in the course have not changed as a result of the formalisation of the course. The course is still aimed at addressing the needs of marginalised people. The definition of black has broadened somewhat and now includes other marginalised

groups like "coloured" students, although no specific mention is made of women as a marginalised group.

### ***ETD practitioners***

Most informants I spoke to stated that the teachers are not different now that the course is more formalised (Informant 13, Informant 9). There are not particular requirements for the educators in order to achieve registration with SAQA (Informant 13). However, the current programme director was appointed on the basis of her specific expertise in the NQF field.

They emphasise that teachers are selected on the basis of being the best in their field of performance, that is, that they are highly skilled people (Informant 13; Informant 14). The teachers are mostly professional actors and the "best" from outside. The qualifications of the teaching staff are outlined in the 'blue book' (Procedures for preliminary accreditation: private higher education institutions). Five staff members had undergraduate degrees, three of which were Performers diplomas; one had an Honours degree in Drama, one had a teacher's diploma from the USA, while the other four had only informal qualifications and/or teaching diplomas from unstipulated institutions. In total out of the eleven educators five had qualifications relating to teaching, five had qualifications relating to performing arts. For five of the staff members no qualifications relating directly to teaching or performing arts were stipulated.

The programme director however argues that the educators need to be more than actors. They have to be trained as educators (Informant 13). She also spoke of being able to employ those who can "do the job" and mentioned measures to assess staff performance. This relates to the NQF as a quality management system.

In the past fewer educators were teaching all the classes, but now different educators are being appointed to teach different learning areas. This may relate to specialist knowledge being called for in different teaching areas. This means that the students are exposed to different teaching styles (Informant 13).

In this case study, as with case study A, the increased amount of administrative duties has implications for teaching time and the expertise needed of the educators. The educators now also have to have increased administrative skills including computer literacy (Informant 9). Educators' roles have also been expanded to include greater course design components. Before formalisation, educators had a free range over what they wanted to teach on a particular day. Now they have to plan in advance, which calls for closer management (Informant 13).

The administrative load is most heavily on the course convenor, the person who is responsible for getting the course accredited and ensuring its ongoing accreditation (Informant 13).

### *Conclusion*

In general it does not seem as if the formalisation and registration with SAQA has changed the demands on the types of educators that are being used at the organisation. Most of the educators are still being recruited on the basis of their practical real-world experience. Some do have formal qualifications in either performing arts or teaching or both, but some have formal qualifications in neither.

The formalisation does however change the role of the educator. It now requires greater planning and design skills and calls for greater administrative tasks and skills. The greatest part of this administrative burden falls on the programme director, who is responsible for maintaining the registration with SAQA and the Department of Education.

### *Pedagogy*

Originally the idea was to offer a parallel training course to black students who were excluded from university. The methodology would most likely have been the same as was used at the university. However the founder discovered that there was an "acute problem with literacy". This precluded her from organising the course in an identical way to a university course (Informant 14).

The ex-director (Informant 14) explained that it was then decided to work in a way that "works for African people", using the "resources that African people in particular had to offer". Specifically this meant working with improvisation and story telling as ways to convey experiences and release creativity, which could be blocked by more formal methods (Informant 14). Thus the pedagogy shifted to a more emergent one. This corresponds to the competence-based pedagogy outlined by Bernstein (1996).

In the past the teaching and learning programme was a bit irregular. This was described by the current programme director (Informant 13) that there was no planning, no record of what was covered, no reflection, evaluation or assessment of the learning programme before. At production times, the students sometimes would work from nine in the morning until midnight. But then at other times the programme would "drift a bit" (Informant 14).

Now teaching is focused on four components outlined by the SAQA requirements namely, skills, knowledge, attitude and values. The emphasis is on what the learners must to be able to **do**.

The values are not just the ones the teachers subscribe to; they are based on the South African constitution (Informant 13). In the SAQA Procedures for preliminary accreditation: Private Higher Education Institutions (Blue Book) specific guidelines for the use of experiential learning are outlined. This implies that experiential learning represents the major teaching methodology.

The course is now more formal. Teachers now have to prepare lesson plans and these have become more formalised. This means that teachers have to be more explicit about their thinking about their teaching practice. There has to be a clear rationale for the particular courses and the particular lessons planned. There is more effort now with keeping records, for example, attendance and assessment. The students keep a journal outlining what they are learning, which is also used as an assessment tool (Informant 13).

Despite the fact that lesson plans now need to be written in preparation for classes, some teachers claim that the teaching has not changed. "We are doing the same thing as we were doing before, but just writing it down" (Informant 9). Others feel that preparing lesson plans has a value for teaching, since the teacher has to justify why they are doing certain activities/topics, it may encourage them to think more about what they are doing. It may also encourage them to do slightly different things in class (Informant 13). But the director warned that the increased time spent on administrative tasks means that there is less time to do the "work" of transferring the skills that the students need (Informant 10).

It is also felt that sometimes to 'go with the flow' is more important. Focusing on weaknesses that emerge in the class and not just thinking about getting through the syllabus may be more beneficial to the students (Informant 10). Some commented that there is less improvisation than before and it is missed (Informant 14).

Formalising lesson plans in preparation for classes and stipulating the outcomes up front, is seen to be enough to make the teaching methodology "outcomes based". There is no specific training methodology prescribed as being "outcomes-based" (Informant 9; Informant 13).

The pedagogy that seems to be supported now is performance-based pedagogy (Bernstein, 1996). The learners are told what is expected of them and prepared for the "real world " out there. Although it is recognised that the students may need special support at the beginning of their training, they need to be prepared to "face reality" on completion (Informant 10).

Assessment always formed a part of the training in this organisation. Ongoing formative assessment was always present in classes. Assessment was done in a final production and depended on what roles each learner got in the production (Informant 10).

In general every one agrees that there is much more assessment now (Informant 11; Informant 12; Informant 9). In addition to the above methods of assessment further assessment is also done. Assessment consists of performance plus a test on the theory. This assessment includes year marks based on assessment throughout the year, including tests (Informant 11). Self-assessment is also used. The organisation arranges an assessment day at the end of the year in which external moderators are invited in to assess the learners. Approximately ten people are asked each year. They are given the criteria on which to assess the learners for each learning area (Informant 13). Written tests are also used. The external providers who are offering these subjects to the learners set some of these tests. Lifeskills is assessed by means of a practical task, for example, the writing of a CV. These tests are kept in a file according to each learner and kept for a number of years (Informant 13).

Assessment was not seen to change the power balance in the relationship between the learner and the educator. The programme director argues that assessment is non-threatening, used rather as a diagnostic form and 'user friendly'. The assessment criteria are known so that the students can prepare for those and work at what is missing. The process is inclusive and the "learners are stakeholders in this process" (Informant 13). The director explained that "assessment is needed to grow your skills". In the performing arts this particularly involves self-assessment. He did note, however that if external assessment starts being more important than self-assessment, people could become less inclined to self-assessment. He also warns that assessment may be artificial. The assessment may not relate well to the standards of the industry. "The assessment will really come once a person auditions for a job" (Informant 10).

The ex-students feel that the increased assessment improves the relationship between the students and the educators because assessment forces the educators to pay attention to each learner (Informant 11; Informant 12).

### *Conclusion*

There are no specific demands made on the educators to use particular teaching methodology, although experiential learning and a practical emphasis seem to be the dominant approach. Some teaching staff argue that the formalisation, and subsequent demand for writing formal lesson plans, have had no impact on their teaching. Others argue that it improves teaching by forcing educators to be more explicit about their approach, while others warn against the

tendency that it has to stifle opportunities for emergent learning. Assessment is now a much more central feature of the education process.

The combination of increasingly formalised preparation for teaching, moving away from emergent methods of teaching, and the increased emphasis on assessment based on criteria stipulated up front, signals a move away from competence based pedagogy to performance based pedagogy (Bernstein, 1996).

### ***Curriculum***

A greater range of subjects are now being taught. They fall into the category of 'fundamental', 'core' and 'elective' as required by SAQA. The Vocational training course now includes those 'fundamental' subjects, which were not a consistent feature of the programme before, including Lifeskills, literacy and computers and cultural studies (Informant 13).

At the moment the 'electives' do not yet represent choices for the students. These are subjects that all students have to do to make up the amount of credits needed for the certificate. The programme director hopes that once more funding has been secured, it would be possible to increase the number of elective courses offered so that the students can choose between these according to their interests (Informant 13).

The timetable is now carefully structured to ensure that the necessary amount of hours for each learning outcome is included. The course needs to cover a certain number of credits in each of the categories. Each credit is equivalent to ten notional hours of learning. At the moment almost all these notional hours are contact teaching time (Informant 13).

Not all the courses need to be at Level 5 for the qualification to be at Level 5. The literacy needs to be at Level 4 (grade 12), but according to the administrative director "the backlog is immense". So it can now happen that although the student is completely competent at the core modules, his/her inability to reach the outcomes in English literacy prevents him/her from achieving the certificate (Informant 10).

The administrative director also expressed concern that "time is being spread too thin", by the inclusion of all the other subjects and that in the past they had been able to focus more time and energy on the core subjects. He argues that skills levels drop or are not achieved if enough time is not spent on core subjects. "It would be nice to spend as much time on these skills as possible" (Informant 10).

The programme director however, believes that the spread of subjects represents a more holistic approach, which not only develops a more well-rounded person, for the arts, but also opens up other career opportunities within the field and even in other fields (Informant 13).

The ex-students recognise that the current students have a lot more opportunities than they had when they did the course. The organisation has had to build relationships with other organisations in order to offer the other non-core subjects, like 'computer literacy' and 'communication' that are being required by SAQA. These relationships have allowed resources, which are held by other organisations to become available to the students of the organisation. The ex students feel that this increases the possibility of employment to the current students. This is not limited to acting, but now also includes technical and backstage options and even being tour guides at Robben Island (Informant 11; Informant 12).

### *Conclusion*

The curriculum has been expanded to include more learning areas. In particular there is now an expectation from SAQA that the content covered falls into three areas, namely 'fundamental', 'core' and 'elective'. This extended curriculum may develop a more rounded student, which includes improved opportunities for employment not only in acting, but also in related fields. However, it reduces time available for the core subjects. This may mean that the skills levels in these areas are not developed or maintained as they would if more time was devoted to them.

## **4.3 CONCLUSION**

In the results chapter I have summarised the data I gathered from my interviews and analysis of documentary. I have shown that although some of the features of the training have stayed the same, many features have shifted slightly. In particular, I argue that the identities of both organisations have shifted slightly. For case study A this relates to the move to the university. For case study B, it is about being more businesslike. The grounding principles of the training in both cases have remained true to the original developmental aim, although in both cases there is an increased emphasis on the course as a means of academic progression, offering a bridge to tertiary education and there is an increasing emphasis on employment in both cases. The learners who are able to participate in the courses have also changed slightly. Both courses now charge fees and require a certain level of literacy, while Case study A has official entrance requirements, which include a Matric (Grade 12) certificate. These requirements could exclude certain learners who may have been eligible before. In terms of the education staff, in both cases there is an emphasis on both content or practical expertise and increasingly teaching expertise. In Case study A particular academic qualifications are also required. This may change the type of person who could fulfil this role. The role of the ETD practitioner in both case studies has also

broadened to include an increased administrative load. In both case studies this load falls particularly heavily on the training manager and programme director respectively, but the educators also have increased administrative tasks. In both case studies there is no particular demand made for a particular methodology. However the increased focus on assessment with criteria stipulated up front, means that the pedagogic model is more performance-based than competence-based. The curriculum now includes more content areas in both case studies. In general the additional areas focus on vocational skills for example communication and computer literacy and move away from more critical analysis, for example, developing critical community consciousness and community identity.

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## CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

From the findings of the research it is clear that the formalisation of the previously non-formal education and training offered, has changed its delivery in a number of ways. Both organisations that I used as case studies underplay these changes. Where they concede that change has occurred they tend to see this change in a positive light. I will use the three categories of concerns raised in the literature to interpret these findings. I will also mention two areas of significant change that were not mentioned in the literature but which emerged in my research. These relate to ETD practitioners and organisational management structures.

### 5.1 SOCIOLOGICAL CONCERNS WITH THE NQF

The central concerns in this section referred to the social aims of education and training and whose interests were being served. It also included a feminist critique of the NQF.

#### 5.2.1 Social aims of the projects

Both case studies have a very strong focus on the aims of their respective projects and are clear about whose interests they have at heart. In general they argue that the formalisation of their course benefits those for whom the training is intended. Formalisation improves the offering that is made to the target audience. Both organisations argue that the 'product' that they are offering is of such a quality that it makes sense to formalise this so that the students and the organisation can get credit. In general I believe that the organisations are doing their best to ensure that the social aim is not being undermined. However in both organisations there is a shift in the aims of the course. In case study A the external accrediting body was able to change the name of the course and thus also its perceived social aim. This shows that external factors have an impact on the aims of the project.

Although the aims of both organisations are primarily with the empowerment of their constituent groups, there is an increasing emphasis on the educational progression that the course offers and complying with the demands of academic institutions. Both, but in particular Case study B, have an increased focus on the employment opportunities created by their course. This represents an increasing vocationalism in the training. Case study B, in particular has a more business like identity which may be at odds with the social purpose of "filling the gaps" left by apartheid education.

### **5.2.1 Whose interests are being served?**

The second concern is with whose interests are being served by the education and training.

There is evidence that the profile of learners who are able to make use of the training is changing in both organisations.

In case study A this relates primarily to the entrance requirements stipulated by the organisation to bring it in line with the requirements of the Council for Higher Education and its status as a Level 5 provider. These relate to the requirement of having a matric certificate and certain levels of academic skills, including a proficiency in English.

Case study B requires proof of writing ability, but otherwise seems to still focus on the recruitment of "raw talent".

The fees that are now being charged by both organisations seem to have had no impact on the learners recruited thus far. However it may well be that in future, especially in times of increasing demands for financial sustainability of NGOs, participants who are able to pay the fees will be favoured by the organisations and less attempt will be made to give financial assistance to those who cannot afford the fees.

### **5.2.3 Feminist critiques**

The feminist critiques centred on the gendered subjectivities created by the NQF and the narrowing of gender redress in line with the demands of the economic imperatives. In particular the literature argued that unless specific strategies are implemented, women would inevitably be marginalised by education and training initiatives. Furthermore, it is argued that a broader understanding of gender equity than those outlined by liberal feminist perspectives, is needed.

In neither case study was any mention made of specific initiatives to facilitate the entry of women into the courses. The literature that I reviewed indicated that the policy documents relating to SAQA and the NQF lack a gender perspective and that they make very little mention of satisfying the particular needs of women. Without requirements from SAQA it is unlikely that organisations such as these will give particular thought to issues of access and redress for women. If what the literature argues, is true, the absence of a gender perspective will inevitably undermine women's ability to make use of this training.

### **5.3 EPISTEMOLOGICAL CONCERNS WITH THE NQF**

Epistemological concerns with the NQF centre around who defines what counts as knowledge, the equivalence or transfer of different types of knowledge and critiques of positivist conception of knowledge.

#### **5.3.1 Who defines what counts as knowledge?**

With the formalisation of education and training and in particular in outcomes-based education where outcomes are stipulated up front, it is inevitable that learners will have less control over what counts as knowledge. In both case studies more knowledge areas are currently in use than before. However, what this knowledge consists of is defined primarily by the dictates of the NQF. For example both case studies have had to include 'fundamental' learning areas which were not part of the training before.

The educators also have more control over the content than the learners. Formalised assessment within the outcome-based model, requires that the course developers stipulate up front what will count as evidence that a learner has achieved the learning outcome. These exit-point outcomes include skills, knowledge and attitudes. Thus the knowledge becomes more static. In case study A the educator did argue that the content was more flexible than at universities that she had taught in before, but the use of course readers, as current as they may be, makes the possibility of knowledge emerging from the learning activity less likely. There is also a tendency for the content which is taught to be less critical and more seen as merely 'useful'.

#### **5.3.2 The equivalence or transfer of different types of knowledge**

In both case studies the training still relies heavily on the experiential knowledge of learners. The literature also refers to the concern about whether different types of knowledge can be considered equal (Bernstein, 1996). This problem was alluded to in Case study B, when the director argued that the assessment was possibly too artificial to be of use to the learners. The skills that are needed in the 'real world' of the performing arts, are unlikely to be able to be tested in an academic situation. This relates to the concept that knowledge is highly contextual and trying to introduce 'horizontal' knowledge structures into formal schooling contexts is unlikely to be successful. Similarly it is not clear whether the knowledge that is taught in the training in Case study A will be able to be used in the everyday community settings that it aimed to do.

### **5.3.3 A critique of the positivist conceptions of knowledge**

Finally the literature outlines a critique of the positivist conceptions of knowledge. The NQF seems to see knowledge as an uncomplicated instrument separate from the knower and to be used for the benefit of the knower. The literature argues that skills and knowledge are highly contextual and interwoven with the identity of the knower. In general it would seem that both organisations in my case studies recognise the contextual nature of knowledge. However, the way in which knowledge is used in the courses may reinforce the concept of knowledge as separate from the knower. The need to stipulate learning outcomes up front and the way knowledge is assessed, tends to make the knowledge static. It also serves to reinforce the idea that knowledge is powerful only in as far as it is usefully applied by the learner.

### **5.4 PEDAGOGICAL CONCERNS WITH THE NQF**

The pedagogical concerns regarding the NQF revolve around the incompatibility of two pedagogic modes, which are used to bring about the two social aims, supported by the NQF. These two social aims are equity and redress, (supported by a competence based pedagogy) and economic development, (which is supported by a performance, based pedagogy). The literature argues that these pedagogic models are incompatible because they require different resources for success. It also argues that unless the social aim of redress is given particular priority, the economic demands will achieve the upper hand.

In both case studies there was not specific demand for particular types of teaching methodology, and experiential methods, assumed to be empowering and learner-centred, are still being used in both cases. However, in both case studies there has been a gradual shift away from competence mode pedagogy, which is emergent and has as its central aim the removal of barriers to learning and the development of individual and group potential. In its place, particularly in case study A, performance mode pedagogy is emerging. In this pedagogic mode, there is an emphasis on stipulating the required performance up front and learning is assessed in terms of the deficits in the performance in relation to the stated performance. This pedagogy corresponds to the economic demands placed upon education to make learners as compatible with the needs of global capital or the global economy as possible. In this way, it is shown that the way teaching is conducted is less concerned with redress and equity and more with the external demands of employers.

## **5.5 NEW AREAS OF CONCERN**

### **5.5.1 ETD Practitioners**

Nowhere in the literature is there any mention made of the impact of formalisation on the educators who teach in these courses. But my research has shown that the process of formalisation impacts on these people. In Case study A in particular, there has been a shift in the educators who are used to teach on this course. There is an increasing expectation that those who teach must be experts in the field. This excludes many people who would have been eligible to run these training sessions before.

There are specific demands of Case study A for qualifications held by educators teaching at a specific level. Although the director assured me that they had made special arrangements that these criteria would not exclude any educators that they wanted to teach on the course, in practice all those currently teaching on this course, also have very high academic qualifications. These factors have not impacted on the teaching staff at case study B. However, it may well happen that pressure is placed on the organisation to get educators with qualifications commensurate to the level that they are teaching in the future.

The specific administrative demands placed on the educators also impact on the types of people that are eligible to work in these contexts and on the dominant roles that they play as ETD practitioners.

### **5.5.2 Models of organisational management**

The change in organisational identity to a more business like entity has implications for the ETD practitioners. More and more they need to operate in a business-like manner. In this way we see that even in the NGO context models of efficiency under global fast capitalism (Lankshear, 1997) are being implemented. In Case study B in particular, this is evidenced. In the past the organisation had many different functions, which it managed centrally. More and more the organisation is being seen as a conglomeration of smaller independent projects which are responsible for their own financial sustainability. This change is in line with one of the major shifts outlined by Lankshear (1997) in his description of the key features of 'new' capitalism. He argues that organisational management structures used the context of 'new' capitalism increasingly disintegrate vertical structures in favour of "horizontal networks between economic units" (Lankshear, 1997: 312). In this way we see that even in the NGO sector the strategies for economic survival advocated by 'fast capitalism' are being implemented.

## 5.6 CONCLUSION

In the literature about the implication of the NQF, most authors are highly critical and point out a number of negative consequences that are likely to follow from the implementation of the NQF.

In this study I set out to investigate whether this has in fact happened where previously non-formal education and training has become formalised and accredited via the NQF and SAQA. I looked at two case studies and analysed the information I got from interviewing informants and looking at documentary evidence.

In both cases the members of the organisations themselves felt that the formalisation of their training programme was a positive development. It was argued that the formalisation process improves the offering that can be made to the learners, and that through formalisation the learners have access to additional benefits like the opportunity for further studies and improved access to employment opportunities.

I analysed the data I received according to the three categories, which emerged from the literature, namely sociological, epistemological and pedagogical.

In all three categories I argue that my evidence suggests that the implications of formalisation correspond with the predictions made in the literature. In particular I argue that in both case studies the social aim of the training has shifted slightly. Although the shift has not been significant in either of the case studies, there is evidence that the identity is on a trajectory, which may shift further in the future, in accordance with the requirements of the registering body. The participants have changed in at least one of the case studies, where more demanding entrance requirements are excluding those who would have benefited from the training before.

The knowledge structures seem to be moving from a very horizontal knowledge structure to an increasingly more vertical knowledge structure, particularly in case study A. The emphasis on assessment, which is required by a formally accredited course, makes the knowledge base more static. This discourages the emergence of knowledge from the learning event, by requiring knowledge to be stipulated up front. This tends to privilege certain knowledge types over others. Knowledge is increasingly seen as instrumental.

The pedagogy is increasingly performance-based pedagogy. This recognition supports Muller's (1996) view that unless the social aims of redress and equity are given particular priority, the

demands of economic pressures will prevail. In this way, we see that the concerns expressed in the literature are beginning to be borne out in the field.

There is a lot of pressure on organisations to register their training on the NQF via SAQA. However, much debate about the implications of such action is being raised. Primarily there is the debate about what education and training is most important for South Africa at this point in our history. We need to satisfy the needs of the country as a whole without jeopardising individuals' opportunities for personal development and political and educational redress. There are convincing arguments that the NQF cannot satisfy both the needs of the globally competitive economy and the needs for social redress simultaneously. While SAQA continues to claim to be able to do contradictory things at the same time, we will be no nearer successful implementation. We need to consider that these things may have to be done independently of each other without marginalising the types of knowledge or education and training interventions that do not comply with the NQF system. Thus there should also be space for individual organisations to think about their own aims and to have the freedom to choose not to register their training on the NQF, with all the accompanying changes that will be expected, if that suits their aims better.

## **5.7 SUGGESTED FURTHER RESEARCH**

This research was of an exploratory nature since the formalisation of previously non-formal education and training is a new phenomenon, with very few NGOs having embarked on this process and even fewer reaching the implementation stage. Thus it would be useful to do further research using other case studies and also other methods of data collection. In particular it may be useful to observe directly the pedagogical model that is used in accredited NGO education and training. The perceived needs of the learners are also an area of useful research. It would also be useful to investigate the impact on this kind of education and training on learners, particularly whether their expectation of increased access to employment is warranted.

## APPENDIX A: ORGANISATIONS INTERVIEWED FOR CASE SELECTION

Cultural History Museum (Robben Island Training Programme)  
Building Industry Bargaining Council  
Cancer Association of South Africa (CANSA)  
Catholic Welfare and Development  
Centre for Conflict Resolution  
Community Arts Project  
Development Action Group  
Early Learning Resources Unit  
Education Training and Development Practices (ETDP) Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA)  
Eziko Cooking School (Langa)  
Fair Share  
Global Competitiveness Training  
Grassroots  
Hotline Administrative Services  
Inset Providers Coalition  
Institute for Development Services  
Job Start Training Centre  
Lifeline – Western Cape  
Lifeline – National  
National Access Consortium (Western Cape)  
New Africa Theatre Association (NATA)  
Non-profit Resource Training  
Primary Open Learning Pathway (POLP)  
Project Literacy  
Quaker Peace Centre  
Rape Crisis  
Robin Trust  
Skills Training for Employment  
Trauma Centre  
Triangle Project  
Western Cape Primary Science Programme Trust  
Women on Farms Project  
Zenzele

## **APPENDIX B: Interview schedule**

### ***Pressures/perceived benefits of accreditation***

Why did you decide to apply for accreditation through SAQA?  
What benefits have you seen from the accreditation process?  
What are the disadvantages of accreditation?  
Why was it not felt to be a priority before?  
What makes it suitable now?

### ***Knowledge structures/grounding principles***

Has your course content changed at all since accreditation?  
Do you think that assessment has made any difference to how your training is run?  
Is the content you cover in your course based on (a) formalised fields of knowledge (e.g., Science, Maths) arranged hierarchically – knowledge hierarchy; (b) on occupational areas, based on the roles and tasks of the workplace or – occupational performance (c) on forms of social intervention, welfarist or activist or behalf of specific social groups or specific projects – project goals?

### ***Pedagogy***

How did you make your training outcomes-based”?  
Has your workshop methodology changed at all since accreditation?  
Have you had to change the way you teach your programme?  
Do you have specific assessment for your training?  
Do you think that assessment has made any difference to how your training is run?

### ***Social aims***

Are the participants you have now different to the ones you had before?  
If so, why?  
Has the purpose of your training changed since you have started working through SAQA?  
Are the majority of your participants doing the training because they think it will get them jobs or because they want to develop themselves or their communities?  
Is your training geared to preparing people for the workplace?  
Are there participants who would have been interested/able to benefit from your training who are now no longer interested or not able to participate?  
Do you think assessment has made any difference to how the participants see your training?

Is the aim of your training (a) broad personal development, particularly intellectual development; (b) enhanced productivity and efficiency in the workplace or (c) social mobilisation?

### ***Social exclusion***

Are there participants who would have been interested/able to benefit from your training that are now no longer interested or not able to participate?

### ***ETD Practitioner identity***

Are the kinds of trainers you need different from the ones that you used before?

Do your trainers need specific skills to deliver this accredited training that they did not need before?

Are there skills that your trainers needed before, that they no longer need?

Have the roles of your trainers changed?

How has assessment impacted on the training; the relationship between educators and learners?

Have the kinds of things required in your job changed?

Has the relationship between you and your learners changed?

### ***Practitioner expertise***

What is the most important expertise that your trainers have? Occupational expertise (i.e. knowledge of the field) contextual understanding (broader understanding of society, macro-political, economic and social issues or sector or workplace contexts or (c) expertise in ETD itself (i.e. teaching/training experience).

### ***Sites of practice***

Where do you run your training?

Has the location of your training changed?

Do you rely on any outside institution to run your training?

### ***Administrative procedures***

What process did you have to go through to get your accreditation?

How many months has it taken to get accredited?

How much time have you spent on average per week on this accreditation process?

What systems did you have to put in place?

What was the most difficult thing you had to do to prepare your training for accreditation?

**General**

Did you have to change anything else about your training in order to get accreditation?

Since you have embarked on the accreditation process, has anything else unexpected changed in your training approach?

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## APPENDIX C: LIST OF DATA SOURCES

### CASE STUDY A

#### Interviewees

##### ***Informant 1***

Director: She has been working at the organisation since 1999. (Interviewed 17 October 2001)

##### ***Informant 2***

Training Manager: Appointed in November 2000, to co-ordinate the successful implementation of the Economic Literacy and Community Development course. (Interviewed 17 October 2001)

##### ***Informant 3***

Senior researcher: He has been a member of the organisation since its inception. Originally he was one of the senior trainers. In 2000 he was the manger of the Partnership programme (Annual report 2000) and currently he is the senior researcher responsible for researching and development of publications. (Interviewed 18 October 2001)

##### ***Informant 4***

Current student: She is working in a rural NGO. (Interviewed 22 October 2001)

##### ***Informant 5***

Current student: He is young man, working as a volunteer at a rural NGO. (Interviewed 22 October 2001)

##### ***Informant 6***

Ex-Director: She is the person who set up the organisation five years ago. She moved out of the director's position about two years ago, staying with the organisation as a researcher for a while, before leaving about a year ago to work in another NGO. (Interviewed 23 October 2001)

##### ***Informant 7***

Lecturer: She is an economist from India. She has done a lot of lecturing in economics and development economics in India and South Africa. (Interviewed 31 October 2001)

##### ***Informant 8***

Trainer: She is one of the part time trainers in the course. She is involved in both the communications and gender and development economics modules. She will become the full-time training manager after the current training manager leaves at the end of 2001. (Interviewed 4 November 2001)

#### **Documentary sources** (dates included where available)

- Annual report (2000)
- Website

- Submission of new programmes/qualifications to the Council on Higher Education for approval and accreditation
- Marketing brochure
- Course reader: Development economics
- Course reader: Communications

## **CASE STUDY B**

### **Interviewees**

#### ***Informant 9***

Trainer: He is a longstanding member of the teaching staff at the organisation. He used to be a member of the committee responsible for running the vocational training course. Currently he is involved in both teaching on the vocational training course and the establishment of the outreach programme in the Langa. (Interviewed 15 October 2001)

#### ***Informant 10***

Administrative director: He took over the position of Administrative director in September 2000 (Progress report, 2000). Formerly he was the singing teacher at the organisation. (Interviewed 16 October 2001)

#### ***Informant 11***

Ex-student: He is a student who completed the course three years ago. At that time the course was not formally accredited. He is still attached to the organisation as part of an income-generating project. (Interviewed 18 October 2001)

#### ***Informant 12***

Ex-student: as above. (Interviewed 18 October 2001)

#### ***Informant 13***

Programme director: She was appointed to get the training course accredited about two years ago. Subsequent to organising the formalisation, she was made responsible for the management of all aspects relating to the course. (Interviewed 26 October 2001)

#### ***Informant 14***

Ex-director: She was the part-time director of the project after death of the founder of the organisation. She was one of the people who initiated the formalisation process, carrying out the wishes of the previous director. She has her own training consultancy and has returned her attention to this full-time after handing over the directorship to the new director two years ago. (Interviewed 2 November 2001)

**Documentary sources** (dates included where available)

- Marketing brochure
- Progress report Vocational Training Programme (2000)
- Progress report Vocational Training Programme (January – June 2001)
- 2001 Timetable
- Organisation organogram
- Mission statement
- Marketing video
- SAQA Procedures for preliminary accreditation: Private Higher Education Institutions (Blue Book)

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